REPORT RESUMES

ED 003 685 24

PERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES RELATED TO THE ADOPTION OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS IN LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES.

BY- DAVIS, RICHARD H.
CHICAGO UNIV.

REPORT NUMBER CRP-S-104 PUB DATE 65
EDRS PRICE MF-$0.27 HC-$6.08 152P.

DESCRIPTORS- *INNOVATIONS, *LIBERAL ARTS, *COLLEGES, *PERSONAL RELATIONSHIP, *ORGANIZATION, COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS, EDUCATIONAL CHANGE, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

A LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE NOTED FOR EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS WAS COMPARED WITH ANOTHER LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE WHICH HAD ADOPTED FEW EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS. THE STUDY ATTEMPTED TO ANSWER THREE QUESTIONS--(1) WHAT PERSONAL VARIABLES CHARACTERIZE INDIVIDUALS IN AN INNOVATIVE COLLEGE, (2) WHAT FEATURES OF THE ORGANIZATION'S NORMATIVE STRUCTURE OPERATE TO PROMOTE CHANGE, AND (3) WHAT FACTORS OPERATE WITHIN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE INDIVIDUALS AND THE ORGANIZATION WHICH ACCOUNT FOR THE COLLEGE'S RECEPTIVITY TO EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS. DATA ON PERSONALITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL NORMS WERE COLLECTED AND ANALYSES MADE. CONCLUSIONS REACHED WERE THAT (1) FULL-TIME FACULTY MEMBERS AND ADMINISTRATORS IN BOTH HIGH AND LOW INNOVATIVE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES DO NOT DIFFER SIGNIFICANTLY IN AWARENESS OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS AND (2) NONINFLUENTIALS AMONG THE ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS AND FULL-TIME FACULTY MEMBERS POSSESS A PATTERN OF PERSONAL VARIABLES NOT SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT FROM THOSE PERSONS WHO ARE IDENTIFIED AS INFLUENTIALS WITHIN THE SAME GROUPS AT THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE. THE HYPOTHESIS THAT ORGANIZATION NORMS ARE PERCEIVED AS MORE RECOMMENDED AND PERMITTED IN A HIGH INNOVATIVE COLLEGE AND MORE OBLIGATORY AND PROHIBITED IN A LOW INNOVATIVE COLLEGE WAS ONLY PARTLY CONFIRMED. (TC)

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
Office of Education
This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated do not necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

PERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES RELATED TO THE ADOPTION OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS IN LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

Cooperative Research Small Contract Project S-104

Richard Howard Davis
University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

1965

The research reported herein was supported by the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

ED 003685

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to acknowledge the encouragement and support of my committee, Roald F. Campbell, Jacob W. Getzels, and Robert L. Crain. Each one was invaluable to the study and, especially, I appreciate the guidance of Roald F. Campbell, the chairman.

My thanks are also expressed to Norman Burns for his support of this investigation.

Although the respondents and the colleges remain anonymous, I express my gratitude to all those who participated in the study. Their genuine willingness to cooperate made the study possible.

A special note of thanks to my wife for her consistent encouragement.

Finally, I acknowledge the support of the U.S. Office of Education, Small Contract S-104, for funding the research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. ii

LIST OF TABLES v

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS. vii

Chapter
I. INTRODUCTION. 1

  Background of the Problem
  Organizations as the Adopting Units
  Statement of the Problem
  Definition of Terms
  Organization of the Report

II. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN 17

  Sample of Colleges
  Diffusion of Innovations
  Characteristics of the Colleges
  The Sample
  Instrumentation
  Administration of Instruments
  Other Sources of Information

III. PERSONAL VARIABLES AND EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION 32

  The Awareness of Innovations
  The Selection and Characteristics of Influentials
  Results of the Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire

IV. ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES AND EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION 44

  Innovations Adopted at Fairfax and Maxwell
  Organizational Norms
  Performance Norms
  Participation in Decision-Making
  Organization Norms and Innovation

TABLE OF CONTENTS--Continued

Chapter Page
V. SOCIOMETRIC CHOICE AND THE ADOPTION OF INNOVATIONS. 92

Cohesiveness within the College
Faculty-Administration Conflict
Typology of Innovation

VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS. 106

Summary
Conclusions
Implications

APPENDIXES
A. QUESTIONNAIRE REGARDING CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES 123

B. CHECKLIST OF PROGRAMS 127

C. ORGANIZATIONAL PROFILE. 131

BIBLIOGRAPHY 140

LIST OF TABLES

Table | Page

1. Percentage of 131 Colleges Reporting Adoption of Programs and Practices 21
2. Distribution of Weighted Scores for Adoption of Innovations . . 22
3. Comparison of High Innovative and Low Innovative Colleges . . . 23
4. Distribution of the Sample by Position 25
5. Distribution of the Sample by Rank 25
6. Cattell 16 PF, Letters, Polar Names, and Scores 27
7. Mean Number of Programs and Practices Reported by Respondents at Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges 33
8. Frequency Distribution of Sociometric Choices for Sample at Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges 34
9. Number of Influentials Serving on Fairfax College Committees . 35
10. Number of Influentials Serving on Maxwell College Committees . 36
11. Mean Age of Influentials at Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges . . . 37
12. Mean Length of Service of Influentials at Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges 37
13. Mean Scores on 16 PF for Fairfax College: Influentials and Non-Influentials 39
14. Mean Scores on 16 PF for Maxwell College: Influentials and Non-Influentials 39
15. Mean Scores on 16 PF for Influentials at Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges 40
16. Multiple Discriminant Analysis for Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges: F Ratios for 16 PF 41

LIST OF TABLES--Continued

Table | Page

17. Mean Ages and Standard Deviations for Respondents at Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges 42

18. Mean Length of Service and Standard Deviations for Respondents at Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges 42

19. Educational Programs and Practices Adopted by Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges 45

20. Percentage of Responses at Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges Regarding Faculty Observation of Instruction by Other Faculty Members 48

21. Percentage of Responses Concerning Close Personal Relationships between Faculty and Students at Fairfax and Maxwell 58

22. Percentage of Responses Regarding the Exploration of Interdepartmental Studies at Fairfax and Maxwell 61

23. Percentage of Responses Regarding Faculty Participation in Selection of Candidates for Replacement or Addition to College Faculty at Fairfax and Maxwell 65

24. Percentage of Responses Concerning Faculty Participation in Decisions Establishing General Policies on Promotion and Tenure at Fairfax and Maxwell 66

25. Percentage of Responses Concerning Faculty Participation in Decisions Regarding Promotion of Individuals from One Academic Rank to Another at Fairfax and Maxwell. 67

26. Percentage of Responses Concerning Faculty Participation in Determining Student Entrance Requirements at Fairfax and Maxwell 72

27. Percentage of Responses Regarding Faculty Participation in Policy Making Concerning Scholarships and Financial Aids at Fairfax and Maxwell. 73

28. Sociometric Choices of the Leading Group at Fairfax College . 99

29. Sociometric Choices of the Leading Group at Maxwell College . 99

30. Typology of Educational Innovations 105

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure Page

1. Model Showing Component Dimensions of Social Behavior. 9
2. Leading Group at Fairfax College 94
3. Leading Group at Maxwell College 95

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The study of change in colleges and universities presents unique problems for any investigator. Some critics of higher education have stated that institutions are difficult to change and successfully resist most efforts to adopt innovations, or that changes are made without a clear relationship to institutional purposes. For example, David Riesman described the situation of the "snake-like procession" in the following manner:

> American higher education seems to me directionless at the head of the procession as far as major innovations are concerned, in rapid if sometimes contradictory motion in the middle, and lacking in much if any aliveness at the end.[1]

The appearance of innovations in organizational structure, curriculum, data processing, and teaching techniques has resulted in a somewhat confusing picture of the diffusion of these new programs and practices.

Changes are undoubtedly inevitable in colleges and universities and the central problem is to understand the process of change. However, institutions of higher education have not, in general, been noted for undergoing significant changes in revising their educational program, modes of operation, teaching methods, and the like. And yet, the demands upon higher education are increasing and important changes will be required, as Corson argued, to make colleges and universities more adaptable and creative.[1] Shils expressed concern explicitly for the need to give attention to the study of innovation:

---

[1] David Riesman, Constraint and Variety in American Education (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1958), p. 64.

> Another subject which ought to be studied is the mechanism of innovation within the structure of a university. A few case studies of the process by which new subjects have found a place in the university might be instructive to those who would like to see the universities become more flexible while avoiding an indiscriminate readiness to accept anything so long as it is novel.[2]

Although a study of the diffusion of innovations among collegiate institutions has not yet been undertaken, it is possible to find colleges which had undergone rather extensive adoption of innovations and institutions which have remained relatively unchanged with respect to incorporating newly proposed programs and practices. While it is too early to judge the impact of innovations on higher education, an analysis of the change processes at this time is appropriate, even though knowledge is limited with respect to the diffusion of educational innovations and, moreover, the techniques for the evaluation of institutional characteristics need refinement and further development.

Finally, it was not the purpose of this study to make value judgments regarding the desirability of colleges adopting various innovations. The facts are that colleges do differ in the degree to which they are innovative, and the research was directed toward understanding those differences.

Background of the Problem

The design of this study was developed by drawing upon the research in anthropology, sociology, and rural sociology concerning the adoption of innovations. Primarily, the research in these fields has dealt with adoption of innovations by individuals, rather than by organizations, and has shown that adoption is closely related to networks of interpersonal relationships. The importance of "face to face" contact was first emphasized in the reports on primitive cultures.

---

[1] John J. Corson, Governance of Colleges and Universities (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), p. 3.

[2] Edward Shils, "The Need for Disciplined Enquiry," Universities Quarterly, XVI, No. 1 (December, 1961), 17.

Early studies in anthropology discussed the transmission of elements from one culture to another on the basis of personal influence.[1] Linton noted the importance of prestige in the geographical diffusion of cultural elements from one group to another.[2] Another study, reported by Sapir, demonstrated three types of factors related to the transmission of innovative traits: (a) the ease or readiness with which the trait is communicated, (b) the readiness with which it is adopted by the receiving group, and (c) the external conditions that favor or militate against adoption.[3] These early studies emphasized the necessity of compatibility between the innovation and the potential adopters and that interpersonal relationships were important variables in the successful transmission of cultural traits.

The traditions in rural sociology have emphasized the study of innovative farm practices. In a summary of the literature, Lionberger identified five stages in the acceptance of an innovation as: (1) awareness, (2) interest, (3) evaluation, (4) trial, and (5) adoption.[4] Moreover, the importance of personal contact in the adoption process has been pointed out in research by Rogers and Beal, Lionberger, and Wilkening.[1]

---

[1] F. C. Bartlett, Psychology and Primitive Culture (London: Cambridge University Press, 1923), chap. vii.

[2] Ralph Linton, The Study of Man (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936), p. 341.

[3] David Mandelbaum (ed.), Selected Writings of Edward Sapir in Language, Culture, and Personality (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1949), p. 414.

[4] Herbert F. Lionberger, Adoption of New Ideas and Practices (Ames: Iowa State University Press, 1960), pp. 3-4.

Fruitful research on interpersonal relationships and the adoption of innovations has also been carried out in sociology. In mass communications studies the hypotheses regarding the flow of information to the public have undergone revisions to include the dimension of personal influence.[2] A study by Katz and Lazarsfeld has shown that a proposed change is not likely to be adopted unless it is identified with or supported by a group of individuals.[3] This earlier finding was consistent with Cartwright's proposition that in order to achieve change in people, one must understand that an individual's behavior, attitudes, beliefs, and values are firmly grounded in the groups to which he belongs.[4]

By using survey techniques and sociometric research, Coleman, Katz, and Menzel demonstrated that the degree of a physician's social integration among his medical colleagues was strongly and positively related to the date of his first use of a new "wonder" drug.[5] The socially integrated doctors were sought after for advice by their colleagues, and therefore exercised personal influence regarding the adoption of the drug.[1] Finally, the similarities between research in rural sociology and sociology with regard to the importance of interpersonal relationships have been pointed out by Katz.[2] He analyzed diffusion of innovations in terms of the following components: (1) acceptance--the dependent variable, (2) the item--the innovation studied, (3) the adopting units--who or what accepts the item, (4) time--a dependent variable, (5) channels--the networks of communication, (6) social structure--the boundaries within which the innovation spreads, and (7) culture--the prevailing attitudes and values concerning acceptance. The synthesis of research on innovations iterated the importance of interpersonal influence, first, in demonstrating that in uncertain situations social interaction affected individual perception and opinions of peers became group norms.[3] Second, that small groups exercised sanctions in promoting conformity and, when the group norm was to innovate, individual members were under pressure to conform.

---

[1] Everett M. Rogers and George M. Beal, "The Importance of Personal Influence in the Adoption of Technological Changes," Social Forces, XXXVI (1958), 329-35; Lionberger, op. cit.; and E. A. Wilkening, "The Communication of Ideas on Innovation in Agriculture," in Studies of Innovation and of Communication to the Public (Stanford: Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University, 1962), p. 55.

[2] For a review of this literature, see Elihu Katz, "The Two-Step Flow of Communication: An Up-To-Date Report on an Hypothesis," Public Opinion Quarterly, XXI (Spring, 1957), 61-78.

[3] Elihu Katz and Paul Lazarsfeld, Personal Influence: The Part Played by People in the Flow of Mass Communication (Glencoe: Free Press, 1955), pp. 74, 130-31.

[4] Dorwin Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People," The Planning of Change: Readings in the Applied Behavioral Sciences, ed. Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961), p. 701.

[5] James S. Coleman, Elihu Katz, and Herbert Menzel, "The Diffusion of an

With few exceptions, research regarding the diffusion of innovations in education has not been as thorough, systematic, or as fruitful as in the other

---

Innovation among Physicians," Sociometry, XX (December, 1957), 253-69.

[1] Herbert Menzel, "Innovation, Integration, and Marginality, A Survey of Physicians," American Sociological Review, XXV (1960), 704-13.

[2] Elihu Katz, "The Social Itinerary of Technical Change: Two Studies on the Diffusion of Innovation," Human Organization, XX, No. 2 (Spring, 1961), 70-82; and Elihu Katz, "Communication Research and the Image of Society: Convergence of Two Traditions," American Journal of Sociology, LXV (March, 1960), 435-40.

[3] See Muzafer Sherif, "Group Influences on the Formation of Norms and Attitudes," Readings in Social Psychology, ed. Guy E. Swanson, Theodore M. Newcomb, and Eugene L. Hartley (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952), pp. 249-62; and S. E. Asch, "Effects of Group Pressure upon the Modification and Distortion of Judgments," ibid., pp. 2-11.

social sciences. Although the diffusion of educational innovations has received considerable attention, the traditions in the other social sciences have not been fully utilized.[1]

One of the early studies, reported by Mort and Cornell, concerned the diffusion of nine innovations among the public schools of Pennsylvania.[2] The factors they found influencing adoption included: (1) size of the school, (2) heterogeneity of the community, (3) financial resources, and (4) educational diversity of the teaching personnel.[3]

A later study by Cocking in 1951 traced the diffusion of seven educational innovations among urban schools in a national sample.[4] He reported that the diffusion process was influenced by geographical location, community characteristics, community groups, the administration of the school, and financial resources.

A study of educational innovations was done by Henry Brickell of the New York State educational system.[5] His study included all levels of education, including collegiate institutions; however, he was mainly concerned with the channels used in the diffusion of educational innovations. He suggested that change resulted primarily from the activity of the public, the board of education, and the administrators of the schools.[1]

---

[1] For a review of over 150 educational diffusion studies, see D. H. Ross, Administration for Adaptability (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958).

[2] Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, American Schools in Transition (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941).

[3] Ibid., chap. xvii.

[4] Walter Cocking, The Regional Introduction of Educational Practices (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951).

[5] Henry Brickell, Organizing New York State for Educational Change (Albany: New York State Education Department, 1961).

A recent review of literature by Mort revealed the following major conclusions concerning adoption of educational innovations: (1) decades elapse between the need for change and acceptance of innovations, (2) diffusion of innovations through the American school system proceeds at a slow rate, (3) simple and complex innovations spread at about the same rate, (4) multiple adoptions appear to be the rule in communities that adopt innovations, and (5) the character of the community explains the varying degrees of receptivity to innovations.[2] Mort's finding was that "these studies seem to show that a valid assessment of an innovation requires examination of the effect of the innovation on the entire system."[3]

Organizations as the Adopting Units

The organizations studied in this investigation with reference to the adoption of innovations were private liberal arts colleges; however, much of the research in diffusion of innovations has been concerned with the individual or informal groups as the units of adoption. When the organization is the adoption unit, the innovations studied must "require" the adoption by that unit. For example, a faculty member could not adopt a closed-circuit television system in his classroom, since the college decides whether or not to adopt television. Moreover, some innovations can be adopted on the "installment plan" by some section of the institution, e.g., some departments may adopt an innovation before others. David Riesman has given an account of the installment plan type innovation in his description of the diffusion of freshman seminars at Harvard.[1] Adoption throughout the entire organization is necessary with respect to certain innovations, e.g., the trimester calendar. Since it is not possible for some departments to be operating on a semester plan and other departments on a trimester program, the trimester innovation "prescribes" adoption by the total organization.

---

[1] Henry Brickell, "The Dynamics of Educational Change," Theory Into Practice, I, No. 2 (April, 1962), 82.

[2] Paul R. Mort, "Studies in Educational Innovation from the Institute of Administrative Research: An Overview," Innovation in Education, ed. Matthew B. Miles (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 317-28.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 327.

Three distinguishable units of adoption have been identified by Katz: (1) individuals, (2) informal groups or collectivities, and (3) formal organizations.[2] In this investigation, the innovative items required adoption by organizations in part or throughout, and the process of interpersonal influence was discussed within the framework of the organization.

Statement of the Problem

This study was concerned with the personal variables, organizational norms, and the adoption of educational innovations by a collegiate institution. The principal research questions were: (1) What personal variables characterized influential individuals, as well as others, in both a high-innovative college as contrasted with a low-innovative college? (2) How did the norms of the organization operate to restrict or promote change? And, (3) what was the nature of the relationship between the individual and the organization in accepting or rejecting educational innovations?

---

[1] Howard Mumford Jones, David Riesman, and Robert Ulich, The University and the New World (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1962), pp. 32-72.

[2] Elihu Katz, "Notes on the Unit of Adoption in Diffusion Research," Sociological Inquiry, XXXII (Winter, 1962), 3-9.

The model employed in this investigation was developed by Getzels and concerns the relationship between the individual and the organization.[1] The two dimensions of the model--the idiographic and the nomothetic--relate two independent and interacting phenomena within a social system: (1) an institution with certain roles and expectations oriented to fulfilling its purposes, and (2) individuals with certain personalities and need-dispositions who perform within the system, as illustrated in Figure 1.

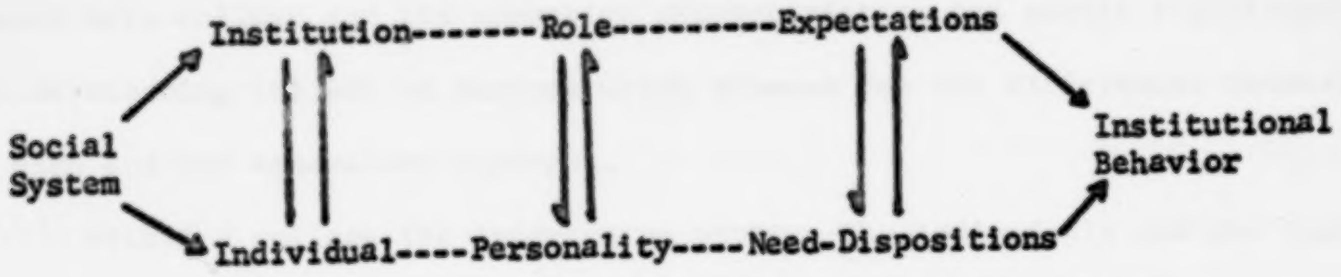

Institution------Role--------Expectations
Social System
Institutional Behavior
Individual----Personality----Need-Dispositions

Fig.1.--Model Showing Component Dimensions of Social Behavior

The nomothetic dimension contains the components of institution, role, and expectations. Institutions are purposive, peopled, structural, normative, and sanction-bearing. Roles represent positions or offices within the institution and are defined in terms of role expectations which carry certain privileges, duties, and responsibilities.[2]

Individuals, personality, and need-dispositions constitute the components of the idiographic dimension of the model. Since organizations are peopled, it is necessary to know the nature of the individuals fulfilling the roles and reacting to role expectations. Each individual possesses his own personality with its unique needs and characteristics, and Getzels defines "personality" and "need-dispositions" as follows:

---

[1] Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (1957), 423-41.

[2] Ibid., pp. 425-27.

> Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those needs-dispositions that govern his unique reaction to the environment. Needs-dispositions, the analytical element of personality, are defined as individual tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in a certain manner and to expect certain consequences from these actions.[1]

This framework suggests that receptivity to change can be analyzed in terms of the dimensions of the model with particular attention being given to the institutional norms, the personality of the individuals, and the relationships between the two. An assessment of both the nature of the people within a liberal arts college and its normative characteristics can assist significantly in understanding the set of factors which account for the differences between the high and low innovative colleges.

Within a college the interaction between the individuals and the institution is closely related to the networks of interpersonal relationships, and, especially, personal influence. These relationships involve those individuals primarily concerned with the normal functioning of the college, i.e., the administrators and faculty. Blau has suggested that the bonds of social attraction unite individuals into a more or less cohesive social structure and produce socially integrated groups.[2] Integrated individuals are sought after for advice by their colleagues and therefore exercise personal influence.[3] This thesis has been demonstrated by Menzel in the study of the adoption of a drug by physicians.[4]

When the structure of interpersonal relations is placed within an organization, such as a college, it was Merton who proposed that "we can assume that a position in a local structure of interpersonal influence may be related to position in other hierarchies but not identical with it."[1] Moreover, while individuals within an organization are influenced more by people in the same strata, interpersonal influence is dispersed throughout the organization, even when it is concentrated among a relatively few individuals.[2]

---

[1] Jacob W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," Administrative Theory in Education, ed. Andrew W. Halpin (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), p. 154.

[2] Peter M. Blau, "A Theory of Social Integration," American Journal of Sociology, LXV (May, 1960), 546.

[3] Ibid., p. 548.

[4] Menzel, loc. cit.

The norms of the organization also account for some of the differences between an innovative college and a non-innovative college. Blau and Scott have noted the resistance to change in organizations due to the "disturbances" produced by the proposed innovation.[3] An observation of this phenomena led Gouldner to state that organizational structure was shaped by the tensions between the various parts of the organization.[4] The tensions and disturbances resulted in the development of norms and each innovation was treated to a large degree in terms of the normative characteristics of the organization.

A study by Newcomb assessed the relationship between personality and political attitudes among students at Bennington College.[5] He found that the community structure of the college sanctioned politically liberal attitudes and the young women experienced a shift from conservative opinions to more liberal opinions. Social "success" of the individual at Bennington regarding friendship, popularity, and being chosen as a leader was related to the willingness to accept the normative political attitudes.[1] The Bennington study illustrated Parson's viewpoint that:

---

[1] Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe: Free Press, 1957), p. 254.

[2] Ibid., p. 411.

[3] Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organization, A Comparative Approach (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962), p. 100.

[4] Alvin W. Gouldner, "Organizational Analysis," Sociology Today: Problems and Prospects, ed. Robert K. Merton, Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., and Leonard Broom (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959), p. 423.

[5] Theodore M. Newcomb, Personality and Social Change (New York: Dryden Press, 1943).

> Failure to conform with institutionalized norms . . . injures the individual's self-interest by leading to withdrawal of help and satisfaction; it can easily lead further into the "negative reaction." Instead of merely refusing to be helpful, others may positively obstruct the attainment of one's goals.[2]

The assessment of organizational variables is, therefore, most appropriately made through an analysis of the norms of the organization. Organizational norms are defined as the central set of meanings and values which regulate conduct and control behavior by determining the rights, duties, obligations, functions, and status of each member of the organization.[3] Included in the evaluation of the normative structure is a degree of permissiveness regarding adherence to norms, or the set of meanings and values which regulate conduct. Merton has put it this way:

> Some groups and organizations tend to require strict adherence to norms, with minimum provision for departures from them at the discretion of members. . . . Others permit a wide range of departure from norms, as, for example, in groups which pride themselves on making large allowance for individuality and creativity.[4]

Sorokin characterized the normative forms of interaction within the organization as (1) obligatory, (2) prohibited, and (3) recommended.[5] Added to this framework was a category of norms which may be viewed as permissive, but not necessarily recommended. This classification coincided with Merton's description of norms as prescribed, preferred, permitted, and proscribed.[1]

---

[1] _Ibid_., chap. viii.

[2] Talcott Parsons, _Essays in Sociological Theory: Pure and Applied_ (Glencoe: Free Press, 1949), p. 160.

[3] Pitirim A. Sorokin, _Society, Culture and Personality: Their Structure and Dynamics_ (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947), pp. 70-71.

[4] Merton, _op. cit_., p. 317.

[5] Sorokin, _op. cit_.

These four types of organizational norms fall within the nomothetic dimension of the social systems model and, clearly, have an impact upon the responsiveness of a college to educational innovations. As the model shows, it is the individuals with their unique personalities interacting within and with the organization that can account for receptivity of a liberal arts college towards change.

The main objective of the study was to explore the relationship between the different patterns of personal and organizational variables in a highly innovative liberal arts college as contrasted with a liberal arts college which had adopted few educational innovations. Through the identification of influentials, as socially integrated individuals, in each college, an assessment was made of the attitudes expressed about educational innovations. Specifically, three problems were the focal point of the research.

The first problem considered in the study was the relationship between awareness and adoption of an educational innovation. The necessary and sufficient condition for an adoption process to take place was that awareness must occur before adoption.[2] The hypothesis was:

(1) Full-time faculty members and administrators in both high and low innovative liberal arts colleges will not differ significantly in awareness of educational innovations.

---

[1] Merton, op. cit., p. 133.

[2] Robert Mason, "An Ordinal Scale for Measuring the Adoption Process," in Studies of Innovation and of Communication to the Public (Stanford: Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University, 1962), p. 103.

Second, since theoretical propositions stated that influentials were often similar to the groups they represented, similarities were expected to be found among influentials and non-influentials within each college, in comparing the two groups within a college. However, a comparison between the two groups of influentials, one in a high innovative and one in a low innovative college, was to reveal significant differences, if personal variables played a part in the responsiveness of individuals toward change. Consequently, it was hypothesized that:

(2) Non-influentials among the administrative officers and full-time faculty members will possess a pattern of personal variables not significantly different from those persons who are identified as influentials within the same groups at the liberal arts college.

(3) Influentials in any position--administrators or faculty--within a high innovative liberal arts college will exhibit a significantly different set of personal variables from influentials within a similar college characterized by having adopted few educational innovations.

Third, the types of organizational norms were considered to account in part for the willingness of the organization and its members to undergo change. Here the problem was to confirm that the norms of the organization, as perceived by its members, significantly determined whether or not educational innovations were adopted at the college. Four types of organizational norms were identified: (1) obligatory, (2) recommended, (3) permitted, and (4) prohibited. The relationship between these types of norms and innovativeness led to the hypothesis that:

(4) Organizational norms in a high innovative liberal arts college will be perceived as more "recommended" and "permitted" whereas norms in a low innovative college will be characterized more as "obligatory" and "prohibited."

A number of additional questions related to the major hypotheses concerned the relationship among various personal and organizational characteristics in high and low innovative colleges. For example, questions were raised regarding the positions influentials occupied in the formal organizational structure, their place in the decision-making process, and the number of innovations adopted or currently under consideration. Also, the explicitness and implicitness of the organizational norms was explored and related to adoption of educational innovations. No hypotheses were made with reference to these subsidiary questions.

Definition of Terms

For the proposed study the terms to be employed were defined accordingly:

1. An innovation is defined as a practice or idea which an institution, or some part of it, adopts earlier than other institutions.[1] Operationally, innovations are defined as any new educational practices or ideas which have been adopted by less than one-half of the institutions surveyed. This criterion will be applied to innovations identified in the literature, e.g., trimester system, independent study programs, freshman seminars, study abroad, and work-study programs.

2. Influentials are identified sociometrically within a college as socially integrated individuals. Social integration is determined by asking respondents whom they seek out for advice on college matters, whom they discuss academic problems with, and whom they meet with socially at the college, i.e., the nature of their face-to-face contacts.[2] These interpersonal relationships of advisors, discussion partners, and friendships, respectively, indicate the type of influentials and sources of social pressure or support which ordinarily relate to the decision-making process.

---

[1] Everett M. Rogers, "Characteristics of Agricultural Innovators and Other Adopter Categories," ibid., p. 64.

[2] Coleman, Katz, and Menzel, loc. cit.

3. The private liberal arts colleges included in the study are within the Midwestern states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin and, moreover, are members of the American Association of Colleges.

4. Personal variables are defined as personality characteristics measured by a personality factor instrument. Organizational variables include those norms which pertain to the relationship between the individual and the organization and affect the individual's behavior.

Organization of the Report

Chapter II describes the experimental design--the sample, the survey of liberal arts colleges and its results, selection and description of the colleges chosen for further study, and the instruments used. An analysis of the personal dimension is presented in Chapter III. The variables of the organizational dimension of each college are analyzed in Chapter IV. Chapter V is concerned with the relationship between sociometric choices and the adoption of educational innovations. The summary, conclusions, and implications are discussed in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER II

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

An intensive study of two liberal arts colleges was made after they had been selected from a sample of Midwestern colleges. Personality data and data concerning the organizational norms were collected from respondents in each college. The analysis of the data was made by comparing sociometrically identified influentials and others in the high and low innovative liberal arts colleges.

Sample of Colleges

A survey was made of 136 private liberal arts colleges in the Midwestern states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin. The colleges were all members, during the year 1964-65, of the American Association of Colleges, whose membership is composed of colleges of liberal arts and sciences and universities that have colleges of liberal arts and sciences.[1] Moreover, the colleges in the sample were regionally accredited and those offering advanced degree work beyond the Master's were excluded from the sample. Since two institutions were selected for further study, it is appropriate here to summarize the results of the survey.[2]

---

[1] Article III, Section 1, of the Constitution of the Association of American Colleges, Inc., Washington, D.C.

[2] See Appendix A for a copy of the survey questionnaire.

Diffusion of Innovations

From the responses to a mailed questionnaire regarding the number of innovations adopted and those under consideration, each college received a weighted score to determine its relative innovativeness regarding those educational programs and practices which met the criterion of having been adopted by less than one-half of the responding institutions. The weighting distinguished institution-wide adoptions, like the trimester calendar, from innovations adopted within a certain segment of the institution, e.g., team teaching in history. A weighting scale of 0 to 3 was employed in the following manner:

Institution-wide adoption of innovations	--3
Adoption by a segment of the institution	--2
Innovations under consideration by a faculty committee	--1
None adopted or under consideration	--0

The items included in the survey questionnaire consisted of 22 educational programs and practices which were identified through a search of the current literature. Additional space was made for programs or practices the college had adopted and considered innovative. Nineteen innovations, of a total of 22, were listed and defined as below.[1]

1. Advanced Placement Program.--Assigning students newly admitted from secondary schools to advanced courses for which they qualify on the basis of private study and test scores.* Also included is the participation of a college in the College Board Advanced Placement Examination Program of the Educational Testing Service.

2. Bilingual Courses.--A course in a subject area which requires the use of two languages, for example, a course in Chinese history which requires the use of both the English and Chinese languages.

3. Closed or Open Circuit Television.--The use of television by a college or university to teach courses for credit.

---

[1] Definitions marked by an asterisk are taken from the Handbook of Data and Definitions in Higher Education (n.p.: American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, 1962).

4. Comprehensive Examinations.--Examinations designed to measure proficiency in various areas of learning rather than in a single subject.*

5. Faculty-Student Governing Committees.--A standing committee at the college or university which includes representatives from the faculty and student body.

6. Freshman Seminars.--Small groups of freshmen are brought into seminar contact with senior faculty members.

7. Honors Program.--Concentrated study for superior students in a major field and usually including a senior thesis or research project.*

8. Independent Study.--Organized individual study arranged for superior students in topics or problems chosen by themselves with the approval of the departments concerned and with the supervision of instructors.*

9. Interdepartmental Studies.--Two or more departments join in offering a concentrated program on a subject or area as a whole, for example, an interdepartmental approach to the study of American civilization.

10. Interinstitutional Cooperative Programs.--Two or more colleges combine faculty, students, or facilities to offer a particular program of studies.

11. Language Laboratories.--Facilities for the study of foreign languages through the use of tapes and tape recorders.

12. Non-Western Studies.--A course or program in the study of a non-Western civilization as a whole or the study of some aspect of a non-Western culture.

13. Programmed Instruction.--A course of study designed for independent use by the student where the materials relating to the subject to be taught are organized so that the student proceeds in small steps, responds to information, and is informed immediately whether his response is correct or incorrect.

14. Teaching Machines.--A mechanical device which presents a computerized educational program designed to teach a student through controlled communication.

15. Team Teaching.--A course or program of study under the direction of two or more faculty members, all of whom participate directly in meeting the class sessions.

16. Tutorial System.--A plan for carrying out specific individual guidance through assignment of students to individual instructors for the integration of their studies with their whole lives.*

17. Undergraduate Study Abroad.--A period of study, usually for credit, in a foreign country and often under the supervision of a resident director.

18. Work-Study Program.--A plan for the integration of classroom work and

practical experience through alternative attendance at class and employment in business, industry, or government.

19. Sabbatical Leave Policy.--A plan for providing teachers with an opportunity for self-improvement, or for additional study towards a higher degree, with full or partial compensation following a designated number of years of consecutive service.

Two additional questions concerned the organization of the college and asked, first, the way in which the academic year was organized--semesters, quarters, trimesters, etc. Second, the colleges were asked whether they were organized on a departmental or divisional basis.

The survey instrument also sought information about the number of students enrolled, both graduate and undergraduate; the number of full- and part-time faculty; and the educational and general expenditure per full-time equivalent student. This information was used in the matching of similar institutions.

The questionnaire was mailed to the 136 colleges in the sample and a follow-up letter sent three weeks later. A total of 131 (96.3 per cent) were returned and, although not all the data were supplied, responses did include the information concerning the programs and practices at the college. Of the 22 programs and practices surveyed, 11 met the operational criteria as innovations. Table 1 shows the percentage of colleges which had adopted the various programs.

The maximum possible weighted score on the innovativeness scale was 30, assuming that a responding college had adopted each innovation in every department or division. However, the range for reporting institutions was from 0 to 19. A zero score means that a college had adopted no innovations in any part of the institution and none were being considered by a faculty committee. The frequency distribution of the weightings are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF 131 COLLEGES REPORTING ADOPTION OF PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES

	Number	Per Cent
Innovative Programs:		
Trimester Calendar	3	2.2
Work-Study	18	13.7
Television	21	16.0
Quarter Calendar	22	16.7
Tutorial System	26	19.8
Bilingual Courses	27	20.6
Teaching Machines	27	20.6
Programmed Instruction	35	26.7
Freshman Seminars	37	28.2
Interinstitutional Cooperative Programs	57	43.5
Divisional Organization	65	49.6
Non-Innovative Programs:		
Undergraduate Study Abroad	68	51.9
Non-Western Studies	75	57.2
Comprehensive Examinations	79	60.3
Team Teaching	79	60.3
Interdepartmental Studies	82	62.5
Language Laboratories	84	64.1
Faculty-Student Governing Committees	92	70.2
Honors Programs	94	71.7
Sabbatical Leaves	101	77.0
Independent Study	107	81.6
Advanced Placement	115	87.7

From these data two colleges, comparable in terms of the number of full-time undergraduate students enrolled, number of faculty, and the educational and general expenditure per full-time equivalent student were selected with maximum differences in the number of innovations under consideration and adopted as determined by the innovativeness score. Therefore, one high innovative private liberal arts college was compared to a similar college which had adopted few educational innovations. The two colleges selected for the study were

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF WEIGHTED SCORES FOR ADOPTION OF INNOVATIONS

Weighted Score	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	Total
Number of Colleges	3	2	1	5	11	14	15	11	12	5	9	10	14	6	2	6	1	1	2	1	131

comparable on these measures as reflected in Table 3.[1] Fairfax College is the high innovative college and Maxwell College is the low innovative college.

TABLE 3

COMPARISON OF HIGH INNOVATIVE AND LOW INNOVATIVE COLLEGES

Institution	Innovativeness Score	Number of Full-Time Students	Number of Full-Time Faculty	Educational Expenditure Per Student
Fairfax College	19	1037	79	$1855.00
Maxwell College	3	855	64	1790.00
Difference	16	182	15	65.00

As indicated, Fairfax College received the highest weighted score on the innovativeness scale; whereas, Maxwell College was one of the least innovative institutions. Moreover, of the 22 educational programs and practices tested, Fairfax reported 17 programs, the largest number in the sample, and Maxwell College reported 6 programs on its campus. Each college reported only one program under consideration by a faculty committee.

After compiling the results of the survey, the two colleges were contacted and agreed to participate in the study. The Presidents were given the general outlines of the study and assured that the information supplied by all respondents would be kept confidential. Also, the names of the colleges would not be revealed, due to the personal nature of the data collected.

Characteristics of the Colleges

Fairfax College is a college of liberal arts, co-educational, under private control and affiliated with a Protestant denomination, and was founded in 1847. The college, located on a 90-acre campus, has a total plant value in building, grounds, and equipment of approximately 7 million dollars, located in a city of approximately 44,000 people. It offers work at the baccalaureate level and at the graduate level in two areas for the Master's degree which involves 58 individuals mainly on a part-time basis. One graduate program is offered at a location outside the campus proper and, therefore, is not closely related to the regular undergraduate offerings. Fairfax College has neither fraternities nor sororities, but has organized the residence halls into units for student government representation, intramural athletics, and social activities. Among the full-time faculty, 54 per cent (43) hold the Doctorate as the highest earned degree; 33 per cent (26) the Master's; 9 per cent (7) the Bachelor's; and 4 per cent (3) others.

---

[1] The names of the colleges are pseudonyms.

Maxwell College is a college of liberal arts, co-educational, under private control, nonsectarian, and was founded in 1851. The college has a total plant value slightly over 6 million dollars and it encompasses 105 acres in a town with a population of over 6,000. It confers the Bachelor's degree only. There are six national and one local fraternities on campus which include 74 per cent of the men, and five national sororities with 82 per cent of the women affiliated. The highest earned degrees among the full-time faculty members are 64 per cent (41) with the Doctorate, 28 per cent (18) with the Master's, and 8 per cent (5) with the Bachelor's degree.

Both Fairfax and Maxwell have chapters of Phi Beta Kappa on campus. Both attract students from a wide geographical area with representatives from most states and many foreign countries in the student body. Since each college is primarily residential, campus "life" incorporates both cultural and social events.

The Sample

The sample for the study consisted of the full-time administrative officers and full-time faculty members for the 1964-1965 academic year. Table 4 shows the number from each college included in the sample.

TABLE 4

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY POSITION

College	Administrators	Full-Time Faculty	Staff	Total
Fairfax	5	53	0	58
Maxwell	6	45	2	53

The total number eligible at Fairfax College was 86 and the total number at Maxwell College was 73. All individuals eligible and on campus were contacted by the investigator either personally or by letter. Those that failed to participate did so on the grounds that the data sought were too personal or they failed to respond by not completing the instruments. Furthermore, eight faculty members at Fairfax and one at Maxwell were on leaves of absence or sabbatical leaves and were not available on campus. Finally, the distribution of the full-time faculty members in the sample according to rank is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY RANK

College	Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Other
Fairfax	15	12	19	4	3
Maxwell	16	9	15	5	0

Instrumentation

Four instruments were administered to the subjects during on-campus visits or, following each visit, by letter. The instruments included a Checklist of educational programs and practices, the Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Test, an Organizational Profile, and a sociometric questionnaire. Each of these will be discussed regarding its nature, selection or construction, and procedures for scoring. The Checklist and Organizational Profile are included in the Appendices.

Checklist of Programs

In order to assess the awareness of the respondents of educational programs and practices, a list of 22 items was prepared on which the respondent could indicate those practices and programs he had read about in the journals, heard about at professional meetings, or knew about from other sources. The 22 items correspond to the items on the survey instrument sent to the original sample of colleges. The items included those which met the criteria as innovations and those items, although not meeting the operational criteria, which were discussed in the current literature. The mean of awareness was then computed for each college.

The Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire

The Cattell 16 PF (Form A) is composed of 187 three-choice items supporting sixteen personality traits. Each trait is bi-polar with low scores representing one pole, and high scores representing the other. Ten or thirteen items measure each variable. The three-choice responses indicate agreement, disagreement, or uncertainty with each of the items supporting the particular trait on the basis of personal preference of the respondent. Responses are scored as 0, 2 or 1, respectively, and 15 factors have a range of 0-20 or 0-26. Factor B, Intelligence, has a range of 0-13 with each item answered correctly receiving 1 point. Table 6 indicates the factors, names, and range of scores.

TABLE 6

CATTELL 16 PF, LETTERS, POLAR NAMES, AND SCORES

	Low Score Pole		High Score Pole	
Factor Letter	Score	Name	Name	Score
A	0	Aloof, cold	Warm, sociable	20
B	0	Dull, low capacity	Intelligent	13
C	0	Emotional	Mature, calm	26
E	0	Submissive	Dominant	26
F	0	Glum, silent	Talkative	26
G	0	Undependable	Conscientious	20
H	0	Timid, shy	Adventurous	26
I	0	Tough, realistic	Sensitive	20
L	0	Trustful, adaptable	Suspecting	20
M	0	Conventional	Unconcerned	26
N	0	Simple, awkward	Sophisticated	20
O	0	Confident	Insecure	26
Q1	0	Conservative	Experimenting	20
Q2	0	Dependent	Self-sufficient	20
Q3	0	Lax, unsure	Controlled	20
Q4	0	Phlegmatic	Excitable	26

Since the study concerned the analysis of personal variables in relationship to innovativeness, a suitable instrument was needed to assess those factors relevant for the research. After a search of the available instruments, the 16 PF appeared to be the most closely related to the personal dimension of the study and the instrument did contain some factors directly related to the research, e.g., Factors M and Q1. Moreover, the instrument's dimension did not carry value connotations and had been rather carefully researched. It appeared to be suitable to an adult population and allowed more than a forced choice of responses.

The Cattell 16 PF is usually scored by converting the raw score for each variable into a standard score called a sten. However, in this case, the raw scores were used since converted scores were not necessary and do involve some slight loss of information.[1] The mean raw scores were analyzed according to multiple-discriminant analysis of variance.[2]

The Organizational Profile

The Organizational Profile contained 40 items related to the normative dimensions of a college as an institution. The items were concerned with the interaction of the faculty and the college and were classified under the following four headings: (a) Administration, (b) Faculty, (c) Curriculum, and (d) Students. The items under each heading were further divided into those dealing with the performance expectations within the organization and those concerned with participation in the decision-making process. Five items were related to performance and five items were concerned with decision-making. Respondents had an identical choice of responses, and the instrument was to be answered as the respondent perceived the situation. The responses were: (a) required, (b) recommended or encouraged, but not required, (c) permitted, but not recommended, (d) prohibited, and (e) other.

An earlier version of the Organizational Profile was tested in a pilot

---

[1] Raymond B. Cattell and Herbert W. Eber, Handbook for the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (Champaign, Ill.: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1957), p. 10.

[2] William W. Cooley and Paul R. Lohnes, Multivariate Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1962).

study to assure variability of responses. At a college identified near the median of the innovativeness scale, the President, Dean of the College, Dean of Students, Dean of Men, two professors, two associate professors, and two assistant professors, who had been at the college a minimum of three to a maximum of thirty years, responded to the profile and discussed the instrument with the investigator. As a result some items were modified; some replaced. In general, the Profile was revised to highlight the relationship between the faculty as a group and the institution. Since faculty members constituted the largest segment at each college, every respondent, administrator or faculty member, could respond to the items as he perceived the activity of the faculty as a whole at the college.

The Organizational Profile was scored by item and by category for each college by totaling the number of responses scored for each of the 40 items. The results for each college were reported by combining the categories "required" and "prohibited," and "recommended" and "permitted."

Sociometric Questionnaire

The sociometric questionnaire consisted of three questions which asked respondents to list three individuals under each question. The questions were adapted from the study of physicians by Coleman et al.[1] The three questions were: (1) What three individuals at the College do you seek out most often for advice concerning College matters? (2) What three individuals at the College do you discuss academic problems with most often? (3) What three individuals at the College do you meet with socially most often? These questions were designed as a sociometric measure of integration. Respondents were asked to list individuals by name rather than by title. Individuals were scored each time they were named in each of the three areas. The total score for each individual served to identify him as an influential--a high socially integrated person, or as a non-influential--a low socially integrated individual.

---

[1] Coleman, Katz, and Menzel, loc. cit.

Administration of Instruments

Two methods were employed in administering the questionnaires. First, the investigator spent a week on each campus to discuss and administer the instruments to available administrative officers, department heads, and faculty members, respectively. Second, since all faculty members could not be contacted, the remaining individuals were contacted by a letter which explained the purpose of the study, the nature of the questionnaires, and indicated that some faculty members in their departments had already responded. Therefore, if those contacted by mail had any difficulty with the materials, they could contact their department head or a colleague for assistance. The tests took approximately one hour to complete. They were given in sequence of the Checklist of Programs, Cattell 16 PF, Organizational Profile, and sociometric questions.

The investigator made another visit to each campus to complete focused interviews with influentials and to gather data from official college records. The interviews ranged from one-half hour to four hours in length.

Other Sources of Information

In addition to the instruments, data were secured from a number of other sources. At each institution the faculty minutes were read to date the adoption and rejection of innovations and to trace the history of the college's concern for its educational programs and practices. The college bulletins, faculty handbooks, and student handbooks were also extensively used in the analysis of the normative structures. Interview comments provided illustrations of the performance and participation norms. Finally, prepared speeches, self-studies, and other materials published by each college were used as resource documents.

CHAPTER III

PERSONAL VARIABLES AND EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

In this chapter, the respondents' awareness of innovations will be reported, the selection and characteristics of the influentials will be presented, and the results of the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire will be analyzed. Other appropriate data will be presented to identify the personal variables in the high innovative college--Fairfax--as compared to the low innovative college--Maxwell.

The Awareness of Innovations

A basic consideration in the study of educational innovations is that failure to adopt is not related to the lack of knowledge on the part of those at the institution of possible innovations appropriate to a collegiate institution. Educational innovations are reported in the literature, discussed at various professional meetings, and passed on by conversation. Therefore, the first hypothesis of the study was:

> (1) Full-time faculty members and administrators in both high and low innovative liberal arts colleges will not differ significantly in awareness of educational innovations.

Respondents were asked to complete a checklist of 22 innovative programs and practices, identical to those surveyed in the mailed questionnaire.[1] The mean number of programs and practices and standard deviations reported by the respondents at each college are contained in Table 7. The difference between the means was not significant to reject the null hypothesis and, therefore, Hypothesis 1 was confirmed.

---

[1] See Appendix B.

TABLE 7

MEAN NUMBER OF PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES REPORTED BY RESPONDENTS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES

College	Mean Number of Programs	Standard Deviation
Fairfax	20.31	1.98
Maxwell	20.36	2.04

The Selection and Characteristics of Influentials

Three sociometric questions were employed to identify socially integrated individuals at each college. Influentials were defined as those individuals with a high degree of social integration, and the term, non-influentials, was employed for individuals with a low degree of social integration. Individuals were scored for number of choices received from the respondents in the sample. The frequency distribution is shown in Table 8. For the purposes of the study individuals with a score of 8 or more in both Fairfax and Maxwell were identified as the influentials. The decision to include only those persons with 8 choice votes or more was made somewhat arbitrarily. First, individuals with 8 choice votes included all those identified in the interview as supporting or opposing proposed innovations. Second, selection of an individual as an influential required that three or more respondents made multiple choices for an individual. In other words, a person identified as an influential could be given a maximum of 3 votes by a respondent, which meant that he had chosen the selected influential as an advisor, discussion partner, and friend. Finally, setting the cutoff at a score of 8 was related to the committee structure in each college, to insure that socially integrated individuals were active in the affairs of the college by serving on elected and appointed committees.

TABLE 8

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES FOR SAMPLE AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES

Score	Fairfax	Maxwell
63		1
34	1	
27	1	
18		1
15	2	1
14		3
13	1	1
12	1	
10	2	1
9	1	1
8	3	2
7	5	4
6	5	3
5	5	2
4	2	5
3	8	5
2	7	9
1	5	4
0	9	10
Total	58	53

According to this method, a total of fifteen individuals at Fairfax College and fifteen at Maxwell College received 8 or more sociometric choices. Complete data were secured from 12 and 11 of these influentials, respectively. At each college, no part-time faculty or administrators, and no staff members or Board of Trustees members were identified as influentials. For Fairfax College the influentials accounted for 17.4 per cent of the 86 eligible respondents. At Maxwell College influentials represented 19.7 per cent of the 73 individuals eligible. The percentage of respondents in the sample identified as influentials for each college was 20.7 and 20.8, respectively.

The membership of the individuals identified as influentials on college committees was explored to determine the extent of their participation in college affairs. Although the committee structure differed at each college, influentials appeared on every committee, and always more than one on those referred to as the "most important committees" on each campus. The committees and number of influentials on each for Fairfax College are presented in Table 9 and for Maxwell College in Table 10.

TABLE 9

NUMBER OF INFLUENTIALS SERVING ON FAIRFAX COLLEGE COMMITTEES

Committee	Number of Members	Members Identified as Influentials
Admissions	7	1
Commission on Curricular Change[a]	11	4
Curriculum	10	2
Educational Policy	9	3
Faculty Affairs	6	3
Faculty Seminar	4	1
Foreign Study	6	3
Graduate Study[a]	4	1
Library	8	1
Nominating	4	1
Reading Program	7	1
Student Affairs	12	2
Teacher Education	9	5

[a] A sub-committee of the Educational Policy Committee

At Fairfax the President serves as ex officio member of all faculty committees. Among the administrative committees, five influentials served on the seven-member Administrative Council. Moreover, influentials served as chairmen of four of the faculty committees. At Maxwell College the President and Dean were ex officio members of all faculty committees, and influentials served as chairmen of eight committees.

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF INFLUENTIALS SERVING ON MAXWELL COLLEGE COMMITTEES

Committee	Number of Members	Members Identified as Influentials
Admissions and Academic Standing	10	3
Athletics	8	1
Curriculum Revision	5	3
Educational Policy	7	3
Extracurricular Activities	8	1
Fringe Benefits	7	1
Judiciary	6	3
Lectures and Concerts	8	3
Operation of the College	9	4
Publications	4	1
Scheduling	7	1
Scholarship and Financial Aid	8	1

At each college one committee was consistently referred to as the most important. At Fairfax it was the Educational Policy Committee and at Maxwell the most important one was the Operation of the College Committee. On each of these committees socially integrated individuals were represented with three members serving on the Educational Policy Committee and four members serving on the Operation of the College Committee.

Socially integrated individuals at Fairfax College included five administrators and ten faculty members. At Maxwell College the influentials included four administrative officers and eleven faculty members. Seven professors and three associate professors were identified as influentials at

Fairfax, and at Maxwell faculty members selected as influentials included nine professors, one associate professor, and one assistant professor. Characteristics of the influentials in the sample with respect to age and length of service at the college are reflected in Tables 11 and 12.

TABLE 11

MEAN AGE OF INFLUENTIALS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES

College	Number of Influentials	Mean Age	S.D.
Fairfax	12	45.50	18.85
Maxwell	11	42.36	18.21

TABLE 12

MEAN LENGTH OF SERVICE OF INFLUENTIALS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES

College	Number of Influentials	Mean Length of Service	S.D.
Fairfax	12	15.33	6.81
Maxwell	11	8.81	4.35

Significance: .01.

While the test for difference between the ages of influentials did not confirm statistical significance, length of service or tenure with the college revealed significant differences beyond the .01 level. This difference raised the question: Why did influentials of similar age at each college differ as to the length of service with the institution? Part of the difference is accounted for by the fact that more faculty members were added to the faculty with their

Doctorate degrees at Maxwell, than those added at Fairfax. One pattern at Fairfax was for faculty members to begin service with the college with only their Master's degrees and after teaching a number of years to begin and later complete the Doctorate through sabbatical leaves, leaves of absence, or part-time and summer enrollment at a university. For example, Fairfax hired 13 full-time faculty members for the 1964-1965 academic year, and 30.7 per cent (4) possessed the earned Doctorate. Maxwell hired 7 full-time faculty and 71.4 per cent (5) had already completed the Doctorate. A faculty member was more likely to have completed his Doctorate before joining Maxwell College than an individual who went to Fairfax and, consequently, he was likely to have had fewer years of service since he had been in pursuit of the degree elsewhere.

Results of the Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire

A measure of the personality dimension of the high innovative and low innovative colleges was provided through the use of the Cattell 16 PF Questionnaire. Table 13 contains the mean scores on the 16 factors for Fairfax College and Table 14 reports the mean scores for Maxwell College for the influentials and non-influentials. A comparison of the mean scores for the two groups of influentials at each college is shown in Table 15. These data are related to Hypotheses 2 and 3 which were:

(2) Non-influentials among the administrative officers and full-time faculty members will possess a pattern of personal variables not significantly different from those persons who are identified as influentials within the same groups at the liberal arts college.

(3) Influentials in any position--administrators or faculty--within a high innovative liberal arts college will exhibit a significantly different set of personal variables from influentials within a similar college characterized by having adopted few educational innovations.

TABLE 13

MEAN SCORES ON 16 PF FOR FAIRFAX COLLEGE: INFLUENTIALS AND NON-INFLUENTIALS

Factor Letter	Low Score Pole	High Score Pole	Mean Scores	
			Influentials	Non-Influentials
A	Aloof, cold	Warm, sociable	9.00	8.39
B	Dull, low capacity	Intelligent	10.17	10.13
C	Emotional	Mature, calm	15.67	15.93
E	Submissive	Dominant	13.92	12.22
F	Glum, silent	Talkative	12.75	11.80
G	Undependable	Conscientious	11.42	12.43
H	Timid, shy	Adventurous	16.33	13.30
I	Tough, realistic	Sensitive	11.92	12.02
L	Trustful, adaptable	Suspecting	5.92	6.96
M	Conventional	Unconcerned	14.08	13.54
N	Simple, awkward	Sophisticated	9.58	9.59
O	Confident	Insecure	8.08	8.67
Q1	Conservative	Experimenting	12.50	11.24
Q2	Dependent	Self-sufficient	10.33	12.39
Q3	Lax, unsure	Controlled	11.08	11.07
Q4	Phlegmatic	Excitable	10.92	10.91

TABLE 14

MEAN SCORES ON 16 PF FOR MAXWELL COLLEGE: INFLUENTIALS AND NON-INFLUENTIALS

Factor Letter	Low Score Pole	High Score Pole	Mean Scores	
			Influentials	Non-Influentials
A	Aloof, cold	Warm, sociable	9.82	9.52
B	Dull, low capacity	Intelligent	10.27	9.71
C	Emotional	Mature, calm	15.18	15.02
E	Submissive	Dominant	11.00	12.43
F	Glum, silent	Talkative	11.91	11.95
G	Undependable	Conscientious	12.64	13.45
H	Timid, shy	Adventurous	11.73	13.62
I	Tough, realistic	Sensitive	11.91	10.95

TABLE 14--Continued

Factor Letter	Low Score Pole	High Score Pole	Mean Scores	
			Influentials	Non-Influentials
L	Trustful, adaptable	Suspecting	6.82	7.64
M	Conventional	Unconcerned	14.64	13.26
N	Simple, awkward	Sophisticated	11.91	10.43
O	Confident	Insecure	8.09	7.95
Q1	Conservative	Experimenting	12.00	10.62
Q2	Dependent	Self-sufficient	13.45	12.50
Q3	Lax, unsure	Controlled	11.18	11.50
Q4	Phlegmatic	Excitable	11.64	10.67

TABLE 15

MEAN SCORES ON 16 PF FOR INFLUENTIALS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES

Factor Letter	Low Score Pole	High Score Pole	Mean Scores	
			Fairfax	Maxwell
A	Aloof, cold	Warm, sociable	9.00	9.82
B	Dull, low capacity	Intelligent	10.17	10.27
C	Emotional	Mature, calm	15.67	15.18
E	Submissive	Dominant	13.92	11.00
F	Glum, silent	Talkative	12.75	11.91
G	Undependable	Conscientious	11.42	12.64
H	Timid, shy	Adventurous	16.33	11.73
I	Tough, realistic	Sensitive	11.92	11.91
L	Trustful, adaptable	Suspecting	5.92	6.82
M	Conventional	Unconcerned	14.08	14.64
N	Simple, awkward	Sophisticated	9.58	11.91
O	Confident	Insecure	8.08	8.09
Q1	Conservative	Experimenting	12.50	12.00
Q2	Dependent	Self-sufficient	10.33	13.45
Q3	Lax, unsure	Controlled	11.08	11.18
Q4	Phlegmatic	Excitable	10.92	11.64

The data from the personality factor questionnaire were tested by using the technique of multiple discriminant analysis to test for significant differences between the four groups: influentials and non-influentials at Fairfax College and influentials and non-influentials at Maxwell College. The results of this analysis are reported in Table 16. The F ratio was 1.189, which was not sufficient to reject the null hypothesis. Hypothesis 2 was confirmed, i.e., influentials do not differ significantly from non-influentials on personality factors within either Fairfax College or Maxwell College. However, Hypothesis 3, which stated that influentials in Fairfax College would differ significantly on personality variables from influentials in Maxwell College, was not confirmed.

TABLE 16

MULTIPLE DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS FOR FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES: F RATIOS FOR 16 PF

Factor Letter	Among Groups	Within Groups	F Ratio[a]
A	11.950	11.094	1.08
B	1.785	2.501	0.71
C	6.549	14.618	0.45
E	16.852	16.168	1.11
F	2.872	19.722	0.15
G	15.574	11.432	1.36
H	44.088	21.892	2.01
I	9.349	9.016	1.04
L	10.330	8.431	1.23
M	6.521	13.262	0.49
N	18.570	7.414	2.50
O	4.168	12.970	0.32
Q1	13.845	6.255	2.21
Q2	21.038	11.017	1.91
Q3	1.525	8.073	0.19
Q4	2.752	20.733	0.13

[a] Degrees of Freedom: 3 and 107.

The additional personal characteristics of the total sample for each college include information on the age and length of service at Fairfax and Maxwell. Table 17 shows the mean age of the two groups. The test for difference between the means for the two colleges was not significant to reject the null hypothesis.

TABLE 17

MEAN AGES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR RESPONDENTS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES

College	Mean Age	Standard Deviation
Fairfax	41.34	9.77
Maxwell	40.23	8.82

Data were also compiled for the length of service of each respondent at each college. The range for the length of service at Fairfax College was from 1 year, individuals in their first year with the college, to 34 years of service. The range at Maxwell College was 1 to 23 years of service. The mean length of service and standard deviations are indicated in Table 18.

TABLE 18

MEAN LENGTH OF SERVICE AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR RESPONDENTS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES

College	Mean Length of Service	Standard Deviation
Fairfax	10.14	7.73
Maxwell	7.26	6.01

Significance: .05.

The difference between the mean lengths of service at the two colleges is significant, with respondents at Fairfax indicating longer periods of service than those at Maxwell. This difference is, again, related in part to the earlier affiliation of faculty with Fairfax College, which was characteristic of the Fairfax influentials, as compared to faculty members at Maxwell, who were more likely to join the College after completion of their doctoral work.

In summary, this chapter has explored the personal dimensions of Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges and has shown that differences were not significant to reject the null hypotheses. Although it was hypothesized that influtials in the high innovative college would differ significantly from influentials in the low innovative college, this hypothesis was not confirmed. The only characteristic which differed significantly was the length of service of respondents at the two colleges. Also, respondents at each college do not differ significantly in their awareness of educational innovations, and Hypothesis 1 was confirmed. Chapter IV reports the results of data concerning the organizational dimension of the two colleges.

CHAPTER IV

ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES AND EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

The identifications of the organizational dimensions of the high and low innovative colleges are presented in this chapter. The main concerns are: the number of innovations adopted at each college; the normative structure of each college as an organization; and the relationship between the normative structure and innovation. Also included in this section of the report is a discussion of the innovative process within each college and the data regarding future innovation at Fairfax and Maxwell. The chapter concludes with an assessment of the relationship between the adoption of innovations at Fairfax College and its religious affiliation.

Innovations Adopted at Fairfax and Maxwell

Chapter II reported the innovativeness score for both Fairfax College and Maxwell College. The respondents at each college did not differ significantly in their awareness of educational innovations; however, a summary of the adoptions including innovations that met the operational definition revealed a number of differences. This information is reported in Table 19.

In addition to the programs included in the survey, each college reported additional programs. Maxwell College included information concerning a guest professor program which brought distinguished professors from other campuses to the college for a week. Fairfax College reported a junior master tutorial program, a study quarter in Washington, D.C., and a college-wide compulsory reading program that required every student to read some piece of literature outside of the regular course requirements and prepare a paper or undergo an examination at the end of each quarter. These programs at each college will be discussed in a later section of the chapter.

TABLE 19

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES ADOPTED BY FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES

Program or Practice	Fairfax College	Maxwell College
Academic Calendar	Quarters[a]	Semesters
Organization	Divisions[a] and Departments	Departments only
Advanced Placement	Yes	Yes
Bilingual Courses[a]	Yes	No
Comprehensive Exams	Yes	No
Faculty-Student Governing Committees	Yes	No
Freshman Seminars[a]	Yes	No
Honors Program	Yes	Yes
Independent Study	Yes	Yes
Interdepartmental Studies	Yes	Yes
Interinstitutional Cooperative Programs[a]	Yes	Yes
Language Laboratories	Yes	Yes
Non-Western Studies	Yes	Yes
Programmed Instruction[a]	Yes	No
Sabbatical Leave Policy	Yes	No
Teaching Machines[a]	Yes	No
Team Teaching	Yes	No
Television[a]	No	No
Tutorial System[a]	No	No
Undergraduate Study Abroad	Yes	No
Work-Study Program[a]	No	No

[a] Indicates those programs identified as "innovative" since they had been adopted by less than one-half of the colleges responding to the survey questionnaire.

Organizational Norms

The main purpose of this section of the report is to consider the organizational structures of the high and low innovative colleges and relate that structure to the propensity of the college to accept or reject change. The analysis draws upon responses to the organizational profile, college publications, interview material, and faculty minutes. The report deals first with normative structure in each college as it relates to performance expectations and, second, the concern is with organizational norms regarding the participation of the faculty in the decision-making process.

Performance Norms

The norms of expected behavior of faculty members differed within each college, and these differences were reflected in the amount of innovation at each college. First, requirements and prohibitions at Fairfax College were few in number. Guidelines for faculty behavior and performance expectations were often vague and not clearly defined; seldom was any particular activity reported as either required or prohibited by the respondents. Rules and regulations regarding faculty rank, tenure and academic freedom were generally defined. As the College Faculty Handbook stated: "Guidelines for changes in rank are inevitable and important, but at Fairfax they are not rigid. . . . Norms are not inflexible, but are set aside only in truly exceptional circumstances."[1] Also from this same document, the general tone was set for faculty members:

> Fairfax assumes that its faculty is comprised of mature and conscientious persons who fulfill their responsibilities without close supervision and meticulous rules. The primary responsibility of each faculty member is effective teaching to the best of his ability.

Faculty members were expected to be present at faculty meetings and convocations. In the area of personal conduct, the Handbook stated:

---

[1] References in this chapter have been made to the various publications of each college, as well as to a number of unpublished reports and papers. Since the names of the two colleges are confidential, the citation to the specific document has been omitted.

> It is assumed that faculty will conduct themselves as mature and responsible human beings at all times. The College does not wish to have a set of rules governing conduct. However, there is a common understanding that faculty never offer intoxicants to, or drink intoxicants with, students.

These points illustrate the relative permissiveness the faculty enjoyed in complying with norms regarding its performance as a whole.

Maxwell College, on the other hand, described the norms concerning performance of the faculty members in strict and largely inflexible terms. For example, faculty members were required to attend faculty meetings. The College Faculty Rules and Procedures put it this way:

> Faculty meetings are generally held once a month. Special faculty meetings may be called at any time by the President or the Dean of the College. ATTENDANCE OF ALL FACULTY MEMBERS IS OBLIGATORY.

Moreover, faculty members were required to attend all academic convocations. "Faculty events must be cleared through the Dean of the College." Maxwell College also expressed expectations about the amount of time faculty members should be on campus: "In addition to that time devoted to his classes, committees, and advising, a faculty member is expected to spend a reasonable portion of his time on campus, where he will be available to college officials, colleagues, and students."

Other areas of faculty activity support the suggestion of less precise expectations and greater permissiveness at Fairfax compared with Maxwell. One question in the Organizational Profile (Item No. 20) asked respondents about the possibility of a faculty member observing another teach.[1] While no respondent thought that such a practice was required or prohibited at Fairfax,

---

[1] See Appendix C for questions in the Organizational Profile.

17 per cent of the Maxwell respondents indicated that the practice was prohibited as indicated in Table 20.[1]

TABLE 20

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL COLLEGES REGARDING FACULTY OBSERVATION OF INSTRUCTION BY OTHER FACULTY MEMBERS

Responses	College Fairfax	 Maxwell
Required	0%	2%
Recommended	60	9
Permitted	40	72
Prohibited	0	17
Total	100%	100%
N	(55)	(47)
No answer, other	(3)	(6)
Total N	(58)	(53)

A combination of the "required" and "prohibited" responses compared to the "recommended" and "permitted" responses at each college reveals differences significant at the 1 per cent level. Such an analysis suggests that faculty observation by other faculty members is governed by more permissive norms at Fairfax College, while at Maxwell a group of respondents perceived this activity within a more proscriptive framework. The interview comments reflected these differences. One influential at Fairfax stated: "Observing another instructor is recommended to those who think they would benefit by it. It is rarely done, however." Other respondents noted that faculty audit a course at times, but in general it was not a widespread practice and seldom occurred. The majority of Maxwell College respondents emphasized that observation of teaching by a faculty member was generally frowned upon. As one influential stated: "Faculty observation is allowed. It is done occasionally, but not usually practiced. Of course, the teacher would have to get permission from the instructor." Another influential pointed out that "one could get permission to observe a man once or twice--no more." Moreover, it was difficult for respondents to recall when one faculty member had observed another, and one respondent summed up the situation when he reported: "As far as I know it is never done."

---

[1] In all tables in this chapter, total for Fairfax College is 58; total for Maxwell College is 53. Percentages do not always equal 100 due to rounding. "Other" includes responses not classifiable and no response.

Norms regarding scholarly publication by faculty members were also assessed during the interviews. At Fairfax College, it was the general consensus that undergraduate teaching was more important than research and publication. One respondent put it this way:

> Publication is relatively unimportant here, if one is a good teacher. Good teaching is most important. Scholarly productivity is also greatly encouraged, however.

Most respondents at Fairfax indicated that while publication was not strongly regarded, opportunities were given for research through sabbatical leaves and leaves of absence. At Maxwell College the faculty members perceived that undergraduate instruction took priority over publication interests. As one member stated: "You don't have to do this [publish] to be a good teacher, but publications are encouraged."

There was little pressure for scholarly publication; however, the faculty members at each institution were conscious of the rising importance of research and other activities, such as consulting and participation in professional organizations, that compete for the faculty members' interests and time. A faculty member's professional interests are often divided between his institution and his discipline, and, therefore, information was sought on this issue. The question (Item No. 22) concerned whether or not it was possible for a faculty member to place more emphasis on his discipline than his interest in the college. At Fairfax College, 21 per cent answered that a faculty member was prohibited from exercising such strong commitments to his discipline; 67 per cent reported that they thought it was permitted. The respondents stated that some of their colleagues were more interested in their disciplines than the college, but reported that it was not a common practice. One faculty member stated: "A faculty member can have high commitment to his discipline if he can get away with it, which often gets him away from the college, too." Although a high commitment to one's discipline was widely permitted, it was a source of conflict. Few thought that any specific rule or regulation would be developed to spell out the College's expectations in this area. The College's permissiveness in this area had resulted in some difficulties, especially with the younger faculty members, one of whom stated the issue clearly: "There is no conscious policy about the relationship between a man's disciplinary interests and service with the college, but it is a source of real discontent and friction among faculty in reference to promotion and salary."

At Maxwell College the responses to the questions were somewhat similar: 26 per cent indicated that faculty members are prohibited from placing greater commitment on their disciplines than the College, and 60 per cent answered that it was permitted. The interview material supported the expectation that faculty would place primary commitment on the interests of the College. One faculty member expressed it this way: "I think that commitment to the discipline means a commitment to truth, but it does not mean neglecting College obligations for involvement in organizations and personal interests, for example." The President of Maxwell College confirmed the general consensus of the respondents and reported that "faculty members have a high interest in their respective disciplines." The faculty had scholarly interests and desired to keep abreast of the newer developments of the disciplines rather than an interest in research and publication. The criteria for promotion and salary increments, developed by the academic administrative officers, emphasized the importance of a high commitment to the College. For example, the criteria assumed knowledge of one's discipline and teaching competence and then stressed the importance of the faculty members' impact on the College, their participation in the total life of the College, and their reliability and cooperation in performing the usual institutional functions, e.g., attending convocations, serving on committees, willingness to accept additional tasks and responsibilities at the College, promptness in turning in grade reports, and willingness to assess student conference reports. These items emphasize commitment to the College.

The criteria for faculty evaluation indicated that at Maxwell College there were consequences when one's disciplinary interests conflicted with the interests of the College. The faculty evaluation criteria had not been well received by the faculty, and the respondents indicated that they were reluctant to be judged in those terms. The interesting difference between the two colleges is that at Maxwell the normative expectation is clearly implied in the faculty evaluation criteria that a faculty member should place the College above his other professional interests. At Fairfax, no clear norm can be inferred, and while respondents reported that strong disciplinary interests were permitted, anticipated consequences were not as clearly defined as at Maxwell. Without known anticipated consequences, the Fairfax respondents' perceptions supported a more permissive norm governing their relationships to their disciplines and the College.

2

The relationships between faculty and administrative officials illustrated additional differing normative expectations at the two colleges. An event at Fairfax highlights the differences. In 1959, as reported in the Fairfax College Faculty Minutes, a question arose concerning the form of academic administration of the College. Two influential faculty members were asked by the President to discuss with faculty members their preferences and report to him their judgment about the most desirable future administrative arrangements for the academic governance of the College. This type of activity was unlikely to occur at Maxwell, partly because, as the President reported in an interview: "The faculty members have a stereotype of themselves and of the administration." The prevailing attitude of the faculty respondents was that the faculty should teach and the administrators should administer. The faculty expressed a general unwillingness to meet expectations of greater involvement in affairs outside its general interests, and it had successfully thwarted attempts by the administrators to change the basic pattern of relationships between faculty and administration. All administrators interviewed expressed the need to find some way to unite the faculty and administrators toward a more concerted effort to develop the institution. At Fairfax College 52 per cent of the respondents indicated that faculty members' criticisms of administrative policies were recommended; 32 per cent of the Maxwell respondents reported that faculty criticisms were recommended (Item No. 18). In general, most of the Fairfax faculty felt the administration accepted its criticisms and made changes as a result. Few of the faculty members at Maxwell indicated that their comments were welcomed by the administration or had resulted in constructive changes. Influential faculty members reported that their criticisms were well received, but non-influential faculty members at Maxwell College often reported that their criticisms were ignored.

Normative expectations regarding communication between faculty members and trustees also operated at each college. The relationship between the faculty and the governing board differs significantly among liberal arts colleges, and the types of relationships range from no contact between faculty and board members to joint faculty-trustee committees, or, at some colleges, individuals are appointed representatives of the faculty to the governing board. The Organization Profile (Item No. 6) failed to discriminate any pattern of responses; however, other sources indicated that the norms were different for each college. At Maxwell College a committee was set up before 1955 to explore the possibilities of faculty-trustee communication. The results of this committee were reported in the Faculty Minutes:

> Dr. __________, as Chairman of the Committee on Conference, made the following motion: "The Committee on Conference was established with the desire to effect a closer relationship between the faculty, administration, and trustees with the hope of eventual faculty representation at certain meetings of the Board of Trustees. Such faculty representation has been recommended and requested by this Committee and refused by the Board. In view of this fact, the members of the Committee see no worthwhile reason for the continued existence of the Committee and the Chairman, therefore, moves that it be dissolved." The motion was seconded and carried.

The issue reappeared after the President and Dean had been in office a number of years, and in 1961 the Dean presented a recommendation of the Educational Policy Committee at a faculty meeting that a faculty-administration-trustee committee be formed. The motion was carried by vote of the faculty.

There have been no further developments in this area, and comments from Maxwell faculty and administrators indicated that the norm did not sanction individual contact with trustees but that official contact would be preferred. The respondents stated that communication was mainly through committee reports, not by individuals, which were passed on to the trustees by the administrators. One faculty member reported that there was a link--a friendship tie--between faculty and trustees but no "communication." He added that friendship ties were not common. Most influentials reported that this area was generally ignored at the College.

Fairfax College respondents' comments indicated that an unofficial form of communication took place, but that there were few formal relationships. As one influential expressed it: "Communication with trustees is provided for by structure and custom. Half of the trustees are members of the supporting church and some meet unofficially with faculty." Many respondents noted the unofficial communication and occasional contact between faculty and trustees. Another influential reported that "much informal communication between faculty and trustees goes on. Joint ad hoc committees are set up from time to time." Contact appeared to be mainly between the influentials and trustees, since many other respondents expressed the opinion that communication with trustees was "neglected" or "too seldom to be effective." The norm at Fairfax as viewed by the influentials appeared to be that faculty were permitted and even encouraged to initiate contact and communicate with trustees. This high degree of permissiveness differed from Maxwell College, where communication had not been developed, was not encouraged, and when the issue had arisen, it was handled through the official decision channels at the College.

The norms covering the interaction between students and faculty members were related to specific rules and regulations, and often as each additional rule was developed, it was voted upon by both faculty and trustees. At each college the rules and regulations have undergone modifications, since the role of faculty in student affairs was not static but changed as the admission standards were raised and as the students expressed the desire for more freedom. Some existing rules, more relevant for a different type of student, have fallen into disuse, but most have been changed by faculty vote. Both Fairfax and Maxwell Colleges were sensitive to their respective student bodies and concerned about student affairs as reflected in their differing normative structures.

At Fairfax College, the Faculty Handbook described faculty-student relationships in the following way:

> To make [the] spiritual, social and intellectual values [of the College] real to students requires something more than classroom or assembly hall exhortation. It requires the weaving of persistent student-faculty relationships in which many different kinds of dialogue can be carried on throughout the college years. It requires further, in our view, that a genuine community of learning must be created and sustained; a community in which the dominant values are adult and socially-responsible values, a community in which the very atmosphere evokes creative efforts far beyond the usual classroom experiences. . . .
>
> Where there are serious, persistent and imaginative efforts to develop this kind of community, many of the more important intangibles in terms of personal drives, standards, values and social concerns may be transmitted or reinforced in measures greater than can likely be the case in more impersonal situations. Such considerations have led the Fairfax Faculty and the Board of Trustees to establish 1,000 as the limit for full-time student enrollment.

In another section of the Handbook, it continues:

> Fairfax has long emphasized the genuinely close relationships between faculty and students. Faculty are encouraged to know their students well both within and without the classroom; to participate with students in appropriate co-curricular activities; to invite students into their homes. Several faculty invite study and discussion groups to meet in their homes regularly. . . . All faculty members are expected to advise and counsel students.

These concerns of Fairfax College were transmitted to the students officially and unofficially and resulted in norms for the students. Many were contained in the student handbook. Under the heading of "College Precedents," the Handbook stated:

> Precedents are formed by tradition as a manifestation of ideas and ideals. Most of the precedents of Fairfax have come into existence because of Fairfax's ideal of a community experiment in purposeful education. An assumed and integral part of such an education is courtesy and consideration toward all members of the community. Important precedents are:
>
> 1. Informal friendliness between all who work for and at Fairfax in whatever capacity. Friendliness and courtesy especially to visitors and newcomers.
> 2. Quiet maintained before a Convocation program; do not stand up to leave the Convocation until the speaker has left the auditorium.

3. Reasonable attention to standards of dress worn on campus.
4. No one should walk on the Heart located in front of Fairfax Hall. This has been a tradition observed by students in years past. The Precedents Committee encourages students to respect this tradition.

Some College rules adopted by the faculty were stated in the following language: cheating and stealing "are not tolerated"; "the College strongly disapproves of drinking," alcoholic beverages are forbidden on campus; gambling "is not tolerated" on campus or at any College function; smoking "is restricted to designated areas." These norms, while few in number, carried sanctions of various degrees and punishment increased for multiple violations.

Maxwell College also stressed the importance of student-faculty relationships. The College catalogue and other brochures referred to this relationship in the following terms:

> Maxwell is an independent, coeducational, and residential liberal arts college. Enrollment is limited because of the conviction that smallness in a college has the special virtues of a closely knit student body and cordial relations between faculty and student.
>
> Maxwell is committed to the philosophy that the liberal arts offer the richest foundation for the intellectual, cultural, and spiritual growth necessary for a happy and productive life. This aim is best attained, Maxwell believes, in a small, coeducational, residential institution.
>
> The personal associations of a small college have their greatest importance in the excellence of the faculty--the academic side of the college. To the standards represented by Phi Beta Kappa, the Maxwell faculty brings its scholarly experience and dedication to teaching. Over sixty-five per cent of the faculty members have earned Doctorate degrees. To insure a rich college experience many freshman courses are taught by full professors. The student-faculty ratio of eleven to one encourages discussion and interchange in all courses. Through these small classes and individual guidance, each Maxwell student molds his own ideas and forms his own opinions.

Specific rules and regulations established for the student body were referred to in the faculty and student handbooks:

> A student who, for any reason, is absent from class or laboratory more times than the number of credit hours in the course may be dropped from the class and failed in the course at the discretion of the instructor.
>
> . . . .
>
> Every entering student, unless declared proficient, must register for English, Foreign Language, Military Science (men only), and Physical Educa-

> tion and remain registered until these requirements are completed. EXCEPTIONS CAN BE GRANTED ONLY BY THE DEAN AND THE DEPARTMENT INVOLVED--THE [faculty] ADVISOR CANNOT GIVE THIS PERMISSION.
>
> . . . .
>
> Smoking is prohibited at all times for all persons in [various buildings on campus]. Smoking is permitted in corridors and offices, but only if receptacles and ashtrays are used.
>
> At Maxwell, liberty is not confused with license. The free exercise of rights is paralleled by the acceptance of responsibilities.
>
> There is not an excessive number of regulations at the College, and so the philosophy of freedom is not hemmed in and thwarted. Most of the don'ts are not really necessary because common sense and home training have taught you how to conduct yourself.

At Maxwell the additional regulations were stated in the following terms: "All students must live in College dormitories" or at home; "no liquor is allowed on the campus"; and freshmen "are not allowed" to bring cars to the campus. General conduct and social behavior were governed by the following norms:

> Men and women students of Maxwell College are held equally responsible for maintaining mature standards of good taste in men's and women's College residences. Guides for etiquette with escorts include the following: Expressions of affection must not be embarrassing to others; conduct must not fall short of a student's personal standards of good taste; and behavior shall be in keeping with social decorum and the excellent collegiate reputation of Maxwell College.

The concerns for students also received attention from the faculty during its meetings. At Fairfax College the problem of smoking was considered by the faculty and finally reached the attention of the trustees. In September, 1957, the Board of Trustees appointed a committee to consider this problem. At that time smoking was prohibited on campus. The resolution of the Board was to allow smoking in two student areas; smoking permission was extended to more areas in recent years, and the regulations were becoming increasingly more permissive.

Another development at Fairfax that received considerable attention from the faculty was the establishment of a Student Honor Code. The proposed code came before the faculty in December, 1948, and was adopted three months later in March, 1949. Annual reports to the faculty were given about the success of the Honor Code which was extended to include unproctored examinations, agreement of the student not to give or receive aid, and the responsibilities of reporting oneself.

In general the faculties of Fairfax and Maxwell enjoyed close personal relationships with students. However, the responses to a question in the Organizational Profile indicated that Maxwell respondents perceived the norm as one which tended to require the development of a personal relationship with students (Item No. 40). Responses from Fairfax again revealed permissiveness in this area. The results are contained in Table 21.

TABLE 21

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES CONCERNING CLOSE PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FACULTY AND STUDENTS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL

Responses	College	
	Fairfax	Maxwell
Required	5%	26%
Recommended	93	63
Permitted	2	6
Prohibited	0	0
Total	100%	100%
N	(57)	(53)
No answer, other	(1)	(0)
Total N	(58)	(53)

The difference between the two colleges, obtained by combining the required and prohibited responses and comparing them to the recommended and permitted responses, is significant at the 1 per cent level. This difference supports the view that the norms in this area were more permissive at Fairfax than at Maxwell. Statements in the literature published by each college also reflected the permissiveness of the norms at Fairfax. The statements in the Fairfax Faculty Handbook presented a fairly accurate account of the general expectations for faculty discussed in terms of making "creative efforts," and encouraged faculty-student discussion groups. At Maxwell, the norms appeared to be more formalized. For example, in 1959, the Faculty Minutes reported that during a faculty meeting attention was given to forming a faculty-student discussion group. The result was that " Dr. __________ moved that the faculty show a substantial interest in such a group. The motion was seconded and carried." The interesting difference reflected by this action was that the Fairfax minutes did not contain formal actions of this type which would define more precisely the relationships between faculty and students. When faculty-student discussion groups were developed at Maxwell, faculty members indicated that they felt required to serve when asked. Fairfax faculty were encouraged to participate, but, by and large, the faculty members reported that they joined these groups of their own volition.

A significant similarity between the high innovative college and low innovative college was the control the faculty had over the curriculum. The Organizational Profile revealed that at each institution it was almost solely the faculty's prerogative to review the design and content of the college curriculum; to set academic standards; to prepare course syllabi; to discuss controversial issues in the classroom; to allow options to required courses; to determine the content and scope of examinations; to consider degrees offered; to add new departments; and to set the number, scope, and requirements for degrees. The Fairfax College Faculty Handbook stated: "Faculty are free to organize their courses as to content, method of teaching, length and number of meetings per week and grading according to their own best judgment, consistent with the College's and department's aims." It was at this level that the colleges began to differ. While there was no general statement on these matters in the Maxwell faculty handbook, the following points were made in the document:

> The scheduling of classes is done by the Registrar after consultation with the faculty members concerned. . . .
>
> Classes are normally scheduled to meet between the hours of 8 A.M. and 4 P.M. Monday through Friday and between 8 A.M. and 12 noon on Saturdays. EXCEPT FOR TUESDAY EVENINGS, NO CLASSES ARE TO BE SCHEDULED AT HOURS OTHER THAN THESE UNLESS CLEARED THROUGH THE DEAN OF THE COLLEGE.
>
> . . . .
>
> The scheduling of final examinations is done by the Registrar. No changes in the final examination schedule may be made without the permission of the Dean of the College.
>
> . . . Cancellation of classes meeting on the two days before and the two days after Thanksgiving, Christmas, and spring vacations is forbidden.
>
> The regular class period shall begin promptly on the hour and end promptly fifty minutes thereafter. Deviations from this practice, except for classes officially scheduled for longer periods, are discouraged.

The explicit and restrictive norms regarding the faculty and the curriculum at Maxwell College were in sharp contrast to the permissive norms at Fairfax College, which has established only general guidelines. Nevertheless, it should be reiterated that at each college the faculty had almost complete autonomy over course structure and content. For example, the discussion of controversial issues in the classroom was left to each individual teacher. No faculty member at Fairfax reported that he was required to discuss, or prohibited from discussing, controversial issues and most respondents answered that they did discuss such issues if they were relevant and useful. Only one Maxwell respondent said that classroom discussion of controversial issues was prohibited at the college and none reported that it was required to discuss them. The situation at Maxwell was summed up by an influential, who stated: "There is no official policy on discussing controversial issues in the classroom, but there are no restrictions against discussion of such ideas." Moreover, course examinations at each college were reported to be entirely in the hands of individual faculty members and departments constructed the senior comprehensives at Fairfax College.

Within the set of items concerned with the curriculum, one question in the Organizational Profile asked about the norms related to faculty exploration of new possibilities for interdepartmental programs of study (Item No. 17). Respondents at Maxwell College reported that the norm was somewhat more obligatory than Fairfax respondents. The results are shown in Table 22.

TABLE 22

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES REGARDING THE EXPLORATION OF INTERDEPARTMENTAL STUDIES AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL

Responses	College Fairfax	 Maxwell
Required	4%	21%
Recommended	86	74
Permitted	11	6
Prohibited	0	0
Total	101%	101%
N	(56)	(53)
No answer, other	(2)	(0)
Total N	(58)	(53)

The combination of required and prohibited responses compared to the recommended and permitted responses revealed differences at the 5 per cent level. The data again illustrated the more restricted normative structure operating at Maxwell in contrast to the more permissive norms at Fairfax. Fairfax College had adopted a number of interdisciplinary courses and was discussing an additional one which would combine art, drama, and music. Maxwell College had adopted interdepartmental studies in two areas and the faculty was reviewing the curriculum to determine, in part, the need for more interdisciplinary courses. Discussions with the respondents revealed that, although the faculty felt required to explore possible interdisciplinary studies, there was little support for extensive reorganization of the curriculum, including more interdepartmental courses. Faculty respondents indicated while the curriculum was often studied, the most common result was to increase graduation requirements.

One related curriculum question on the Organizational Profile dealt with the possibility of allowing options or substitutions to the college's general education requirements (Item No. 38). Liberal arts colleges usually require a common core or a number of required courses related to general education. A measure of the normative structure is obtained by asking if the faculty will allow substitutions in this part of the collegiate program. At Fairfax 22 per cent of the respondents reported that substitutions were prohibited at the College; 42 per cent of the Maxwell respondents indicated that substitutions in the general education requirements were prohibited. The norms at this level continued to reflect the more permissive structure at Fairfax compared to Maxwell.

The purpose of the presentation of data in this section has been to illustrate the permissive, and often vaguely defined, normative structure at Fairfax College and the more prescriptive and proscriptive norms at Maxwell College. Interpersonal relationships among the Fairfax faculty, performance norms for faculty as it related to the administration, students and curriculum were more often perceived as what was recommended and permitted. The performance norms at Maxwell were frequently explicitly stated, and perceived in terms of what was required or prohibited of the organizational members. Although the

Organizational Profile concentrated upon the normative structure as it affected the faculty, the group most responsible for the educational program and for ensuring the success of adopted educational innovations, norms for students and administrators were referred to at each college usually in the same terms as norms for faculty. The Fairfax students had successfully developed and implemented an honor code and they were serving on an increasing number of faculty committees. The norms had not prohibited, nor required the students to assume this role in the institution. Moreover, normative expectations for students had not changed from being recommended or permitted to required as students assumed greater responsibility. Maxwell College students had not played as active a role in the affairs of the College, and the general consensus of the respondents was that it would be difficult, if not impossible, for students to initiate similar innovations at the College.

Normative expectations for administrators at each college were also expressed in terms similar to those for the faculty. At Fairfax, the division between the administrators' responsibilities and the faculty's concerns was not clearly defined. Administrators were permitted to introduce proposed changes. As one influential expressed it: "Even though the President may be opposed by 90 per cent of the faculty in considering some idea he proposes, we don't want him removed." Expectations of the Maxwell administrators were often expressed as what they could or could not do. The administrators were quite conscious of the norms and frequently described them in terms of prescriptions and proscriptions. In general, the Maxwell respondents were aware of the rather sharply defined concerns in the faculty domain and the responsibilities of the administration. For example, the respondents continually expressed the opinion that the curriculum was the responsibility of the faculty. Therefore, attempts by administrators to introduce educational innovations were seen as entering an area from which they were prohibited. On the other hand, the faculty was unresponsive to attempts by the administrators to establish more valid faculty evaluation criteria through a faculty committee, since the faculty perceived that this was required of the administration.

To the extent that the interpretation of the data is correct, the major difference between the high innovative and low innovative college was the degree of permissiveness in the normative structure regarding performance expectations. Proposed changes and adoption of educational innovations were more freely introduced within this permissive set of norms and caused little disruption in existing patterns of interpersonal relationships at Fairfax College. At Maxwell College, proposed innovations were often disruptive when they came in contact with a normative structure functioning in terms of prescribed and proscribed expectations among personal relationships.

Permissive performance norms could result in a lack of unity. With few explicit, directive norms, individuals might lack sufficient reference points in their efforts to perform the normal functions within the organization. Flexible interpretations of standard rules and regulations may lead individuals to introduce changes not consistent with the purposes of the college. Fairfax respondents frequently referred to the existence of the unity within the College and the efforts made to promote a consensus regarding contemplated changes. All proposed innovations were subjected to a thorough analysis at the College and there were indications that another set of norms operated to insure that proposed changes were always compatible with the College's stated purposes. This set of norms concerned the participation of the faculty in the decision-making processes. Fairfax and Maxwell differed significantly in this respect and the data indicated that the participation norms at Fairfax served to insure that while performance norms were permissive they functioned within a framework which promoted continuity and consistency within the institution. The next section of the report explores that set of norms.

Participation in Decision-Making

Norms governing the participation of the faculty in decision-making were identified from the Organizational Profile as well as the interview material and college publications. One area of faculty affairs which differed in the high and low innovative colleges was the role of the faculty in the selection of additions or replacements to the faculty. Fairfax College faculty indicated that it played a very active part in these decisions and was required to participate in the selection of candidates for faculty positions; however, faculty members at Maxwell College reported that their participation was more recommended than required (Item No. 4). Table 23 shows the respective category

TABLE 23

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES REGARDING FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN SELECTION OF CANDIDATES FOR REPLACEMENT OR ADDITION TO COLLEGE FACULTY AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL

	College	
Responses	Fairfax	Maxwell
Required	75%	42%
Recommended	21	44
Permitted	4	14
Prohibited	0	0
Total	100%	100%
N	(56)	(50)
No answer, other	(2)	(3)
Total N	(58)	(53)

of responses from the respondents. The combination of the "recommended" and "permitted" responses compared with the "required" responses revealed differences significant at the 1 per cent level.

These differing norms of participation in the organization were illustrated in responses to two additional areas. At both the policy level of establishing rules for granting promotion and tenure, and in deciding on individual promotions from one academic rank to another, the Fairfax respondents perceived that the faculty was more required to participate in decisions at both levels than the Maxwell respondents, who reported that faculty participation was, in general, recommended or permitted (Item Nos. 26 and 36). Tables 24 and 25 report the responses.

TABLE 24

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES CONCERNING FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN DECISIONS ESTABLISHING GENERAL POLICIES ON PROMOTION AND TENURE AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL

	College	
Responses	Fairfax	Maxwell
Required	70%	24%
Recommended	18	39
Permitted	13	24
Prohibited	0	14
Total	101%	101%
N	(56)	(51)
No answer, other	(2)	(2)
Total N	(58)	(53)

TABLE 25

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES CONCERNING FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN DECISIONS REGARDING PROMOTION OF INDIVIDUALS FROM ONE ACADEMIC RANK TO ANOTHER AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL

Responses	College Fairfax	 Maxwell
Required	60%	11%
Recommended	23	40
Permitted	16	36
Prohibited	2	13
Total	101%	100%
N	(57)	(47)
No answer, other	(1)	(6)
Total N	(58)	(53)

The data illustrate the different perception of norms concerning participation in decision-making at Fairfax than at Maxwell. The combination of "required" and "prohibited" responses, an indication of a more rigid normative structure, compared to the "recommended" and "permitted" responses at each college revealed differences significant at the 1 per cent level for each area. The ambivalence indicated in the Maxwell College responses was also reflected in the interview data, and the active role of the Fairfax faculty in decision-making was mentioned by most respondents.

The Fairfax faculty and departmental chairmen were the main participants in the selection and recruitment of faculty members. As an influential stated: "Faculty, individuals, and a committee are almost always involved in recruitment, interviewing, etc. The committee screens likely candidates and those invited to campus meet faculty members in the department and faculty in other departments." Most respondents commented upon the faculty committee that worked with the administration in selecting likely candidates. Some Fairfax faculty members who had not met with candidates outside their own department perceived the general practice of numerous contacts between the candidate and members of the College. A respondent in his third year with the College reported that "the Faculty Affairs Committee interviews all candidates, and usually many other top ranking faculty members are given this opportunity, and even responsibility, to interview the candidates." There was also general knowledge of the faculty committee that dealt with promotions from one rank to another and wide acceptance among the respondents of its decision-making responsibility. Moreover, a faculty committee was involved in allocating research funds of the College, and as one influential stated: "Individual voices are strong."

At Maxwell College the respondents indicated that they had no clear conception of the function of the faculty--as individuals or as committees--in the decisions affecting faculty affairs, or the conditions of faculty service. The respondents generally agreed that the participation of the faculty in decision-making was not clearly defined. Administrative officers referred to attempts to involve the faculty in selected areas of faculty affairs; faculty members often reported they were prohibited from taking an active part. There was considerable opposition to the criteria for faculty evaluation, but few respondents thought the criteria would be revised in the near future. The President had asked a year ago for a faculty committee to discuss merit criteria, but none had been established. One faculty member summed up the current feeling: "Faculty has been encouraged to participate in establishing policies on promotion and tenure, but it refuses--considers it buck-passing and only a sham anyway." This attitude seemed to be the result of the general practice of involving few people in the actual decisions on promotions and tenure. The influentials reported that promotion at the College was based upon agreement of the President, Dean, and department chairmen. Respondents reported that the departmental chairmen were consistently consulted by the administration in deciding upon promotion and granting of tenure, and the word most ofen used was "consulted." For example, a respondent stated: "I assume replacements and additions to faculty to be the prerogative of department chairmen requiring agreement of the administration and possible consultation with members of the affected department." In determining the use of research funds, the majority of respondents indicated that the allocation of such funds was usually handled through the administration. Faculty members may have been consulted, according to the respondents, but often they perceived that their opinions had been "unimportant" or "non-decisive." Finally, the responses of the faculty continued to emphasize that decisions were made unilaterally in the areas of faculty affairs, and the faculty had historically not been involved in these decisions. In discussing academic freedom with a faculty member, he responded: "With regard to academic freedom, I learned from the President's opening address this fall that there is a ban on 'Communist' speakers. I assume this to be an administrative fiat." The significance of his statement was not the fact of this limitation on academic freedom, since there was no clear agreement that such speakers were banned, but that he perceived limitations to academic freedom to be an action taken solely by the administration.

The norms generally prohibited the participation of the faculty in decisions of salary increments. At each college the determination of salaries was made by the administrative officers. At Fairfax the influentials reported that departmental chairmen had a voice in a staff member's evaluation, but ultimate decisions were made by the President. Maxwell influentials also indicated that the departmental chairmen were consulted, and other respondents stated that faculty participation was sometimes sought, but then ignored, by the administration. The normative structure at each college did not permit faculty participation in setting salaries; however, in determining the use of the College's total financial resources, e.g. how much of the income was to be allocated to the physical plant, library, faculty fringe benefits, and athletics, faculty participation differed at the colleges. At Fairfax, 7 per cent reported that the faculty was prohibited from participating in these decisions; 21 per cent of the Maxwell respondents indicated that faculty participation was prohibited. Therefore, Fairfax respondents perceived that the faculty could participate more in financial policy decisions than at Maxwell College.

The role of the faculty in selecting a new President of an institution varies according to differing traditions and norms. Faculty participation can take many different forms from serving on official screening and selection committees to passing informal suggestions to the trustees or others who must make the decision. Respondents were asked what part the faculty would play in this decision and, again, those at Fairfax College thought the faculty would actively participate in the selection of a new President. No one reported that the faculty participation would be prohibited. One influential stated that a change in Presidents had taken place less than ten years ago and a faculty committee participated in the selection of the new President. Another faculty member stated: "Faculty participation is not legally required, but it is unthinkable that the Board of Trustees would not ask for faculty assistance and guidance."

The individuals at Maxwell were less confident of the participation of the faculty in this type of decision. Eight respondents indicated that the faculty would be prohibited from participating in selection of a new President. One influential commented: "In the search for a new president, faculty participation would be ignored, as in the past." The data indicated that faculty at Fairfax College had a greater voice in the range of relationships between the faculty and administration than the Maxwell College faculty, although the faculty at each college expressed interest in greater participation in these areas of decision-making.

Faculty participation in decision-making in student affairs indicated that, in general, the Maxwell College faculty was more reluctant to set aside traditions of establishing student rules and regulations. At Fairfax College the faculty had lost much of its direct control over student regulations, which caused some concern among the respondents. It was difficult to discover the events that had resulted in the reduction of participation of the Fairfax faculty in this area, but its decision-making powers tended to be considerably less than at Maxwell. Fairfax respondents indicated that there had been an effort to promote more responsibility among the students for their own affairs, but could not account for the lack of participation in student affairs for this reason. In most institutions, the determination of student entrance requirements, awarding scholarships, and setting requirements for student participation in extra-curricular activities are usually established by vote of the total faculty or a committee. However, the administration at Fairfax appeared to be making the decisions in these areas. At Maxwell, the faculty was exercising its traditional control in student affairs. To illustrate this difference between the colleges, the Organizational Profile included an item on faculty participation in determining student entrance requirements (Item No. 24) and the responses are reported in Table 26.

TABLE 26

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES CONCERNING FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN DETERMINING STUDENT ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL

Responses	College	
	Fairfax	Maxwell
Required	39%	77%
Recommended	27	10
Permitted	34	4
Prohibited	0	8
Total	100%	99%
N	(56)	(49)
No answer, other	(2)	(4)
Total N	(58)	(53)

The results reflected the greater involvement of the Maxwell faculty in this area. A combination of the required and prohibited responses compared to the recommended and permitted responses revealed differences significant at the 1 per cent level. The results are significant, also, in comparing the required responses to the recommended and permitted responses. Another Organizational Profile item sought out faculty participation norms in establishing policies on scholarship awards and other financial aids (Item No. 23). Again, the Maxwell respondents reported that the faculty was perceived as being more required to participate in these decisions, as illustrated in Table 27.

The combination of required and prohibited responses compared to the recommended and permitted responses revealed differences significant at the 1 per cent level. The analysis indicating that Maxwell faculty was more required to participate in these areas of student affairs than the Fairfax faculty was supported by the statements from the respondents.

TABLE 27

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES REGARDING FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN POLICY MAKING CONCERNING SCHOLARSHIPS AND FINANCIAL AIDS AT FAIRFAX AND MAXWELL

Responses	College Fairfax	 Maxwell
Required	42%	76%
Recommended	22	14
Permitted	35	8
Prohibited	2	2
Total	101%	100%
N	(55)	(49)
No answer, other	(3)	(4)
Total N	(58)	(53)

At Maxwell College the respondents in general confirmed the active role the faculty played in determining policies regarding admission standards, graduation requirements, and awarding financial aids. Both faculty and administrative respondents expressed the need to establish formal rules for the students. During the interview with the President of Maxwell College, he emphasized the "need to set limits for students as well as faculty." Faculty participation was required, some respondents reported, in order to suport administrative actions. One influential commented that the "faculty was called upon occasionally to take the administration 'off the hook' and support an extreme action it had taken" in the discipline of a student. These types of responses tend to confirm the norms requiring participation of the faculty in establishing rules for students. Faculty committees for admissions and financial aids were generally acknowledged to be effective in implementing policies determined by the faculty. The norms concerning the required faculty participation were also indicated from statements in the faculty minutes, which prescribed rules following faculty actions. For example, the minutes contained the following statements:

> Faculty members cannot excuse students before and after vacation periods, only the Dean can do this. Faculty members do not have the right to rearrange class periods before vacations.
>
> The Dean urged that instances of academic dishonesty be reported to him and that faculty members rigidly adhere to the rule of refusing to accept term papers submitted after the due date.

Fairfax College faculty respondents expressed concern over the relatively minor role the faculty played in student affairs. Although there were committees which had responsibilities for determining policies in these areas, some did not perceive that they were very effective. One influential pointed out part of the difficulty, when he stated: "The faculty 'Student Affairs Committee' handles regulations on students' conduct, but sometimes the administration acts unilaterally." In establishing admission standards, the situation was similar. As another influential put it: "There is an admissions committee of the faculty with very little effective voice." Other respondents stated that faculty participation was allowed in setting admission requirements, but then ignored. Although the faculty did not perceive that it participated significantly in student affairs, there was some opportunity for discussion in general terms. A respondent summarizes this minor role: "At least the faculty can express opinions on broad policies about entrance requirements, for example, should we be willing to take more students with only mediocre test scores?"

One of the differences between Fairfax and Maxwell with respect to faculty-administrative-student relationships was the membership of students on selected faculty committees only at Fairfax College. Students have been serving as regular members of the Student Affairs Committee and Library Committee for approximately ten years. In 1959, the Student Senate formed a Student Education Committee which has participated in the discussions of educational policy in the Curriculum Committee meetings. Therefore, although the Fairfax respondents indicated less faculty participation in decision-making in student affairs, student participation in establishing College policies was more fully developed at Fairfax than at Maxwell.

Test of Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 of the study was:

> Organizational norms in a high innovative liberal arts college will be perceived as more "recommended" and "permitted" whereas norms in a low innovative college will be characterized more as "obligatory" and "prohibited."

The hypothesis was confirmed in part. At Fairfax College the set of norms concerning the performance expectations were more permissive, i.e., recommended and permitted norms, than performance norms at Maxwell College. These normative expectations were shown to affect primarily the faculty at each college; however, there was some evidence that performance norms were more permissive for administrators and students at Fairfax, and more restrictive for administrators and students at Maxwell. On the other hand, the normative structure regarding the participation of the faculty in the decision-making processes was shown to require greater participation at Fairfax College and was more recommended and permitted at Maxwell, with the exception of faculty participation in some areas of student affairs. The analysis indicated that norms requiring faculty participation at Fairfax served to insure that the permissiveness in performance norms operated within defined limits. The interaction of these two sets of norms at Fairfax College allowed the consideration and adoption of educational innovations, and assisted in making certain that changes were not random, but occurred within a framework that required them to be consistent with the College's stated purposes.

Organization Norms and Innovation

The differing normative structures at Fairfax College and Maxwell College had consequences for educational innovations. Both colleges have been exposed to a number of similar innovations, but they have responded differently. This section traces the history of adoption at the two colleges of proposed educational innovations.

Interest in educational innovations began early at Fairfax College and has been maintained until the present time. Shortly after the adoption of the student honor code in 1948, and the inclusion of unproctored examinations in 1949, the College Seminar Committee, in consultation with a faculty member who was to become the next President of the College, raised an important question: "How can we make the College program more creative?" While this question had no immediate effects, it foreshadowed future changes. In 1954, a tutorial experiment in the Humanities was proposed, and policies were tentatively offered for undergraduate study abroad--an organization-wide adoption.

In 1955, Fairfax College completed a comprehensive self-survey. The self-survey report reviewed the College organization and reassessed the basic purposes of the institution. This was a trying time for the College which almost divided the faculty and administration into two irreconcilable camps. The account of this difficulty and its resolution was reported in the survey:

> . . . The Fairfax Self-Survey almost fell apart over an attempt to analyze critically the organization of and functioning of the top administrative officers. Certain criticisms were vigorously opposed and resented; and at one point most of the survey committee resigned--for a few hours.
>
> The situation was saved by a decision to get the entire survey team and

> the top administrators off together for a two-day detailed review of the disputed analyses and recommendations. In a small-town inn some miles away from the campus this group of men settled down to an unhurried, friendly, earnest, utterly honest wrestling with the points at issue. Out of that meeting emerged a sense of understanding, mutual faith and good will and essential agreement. Without that meeting it is hard to see how the Survey could have been completed.

With the administrative-faculty difficulties somewhat resolved the College returned again to consider further adoptions. Its faculty voted to participate in the advanced placement program in 1957. Also during that year a departmental honors program was adopted on a trial basis for one or two years. The program has continued to the present.

In 1959, Fairfax College adopted a College-wide innovation, the quarter calendar, that made it possible for further innovations to be included within its curricular framework. Under this plan students took three courses for three terms, or quarters. The decision to adopt was contained in the Faculty Minutes:

> Prolonged discussion revealed that, in looking beyond initial adoption of the Educational Policy Committee's proposal to actual adoption of the 3-3 plan, we must (1) examine the philosophic assumptions of the plan, once it is formulated in detail, to see if it promises a better education for students and if it incorporates the values for which Fairfax stands; (2) provide for operation of the plan for at least a college generation; and (3) provide for a way to evaluate the success or failure of the experiment.

Discussion continued and it was decided by the faculty to put the plan in operation in the fall of 1960.

By June, 1959, the faculty approved an experimental, required, reading program to accompany the three term-three course curriculum. The reading program was a College-wide adoption since it affected every student. The program was designed essentially to involve the faculty and students in a discussion of significant books. Provisions were made for a reappraisal of the program by the fall of 1964.

Under the new College calendar, independent study was expanded, freshman seminars developed, a student-faculty exchange program with another college established, and the faculty was currently examining the idea of a core curriculum with more breadth and scope.

The history of Maxwell College's response to current educational innovations began approximately ten years ago when a President and Dean were appointed (currently still in office). According to the Faculty Minutes, the new President assured the faculty when they first met that he planned no major changes before the end of the year and that he would make no major changes without consulting the faculty members. At a faculty meeting in the fall of 1955, the President included in his remarks a statement that the College must become distinctive in some way. He proposed that the College develop a summer graduate seminar program. Before the plan had been discussed extensively, the faculty had a special meeting and voted 31 to 10 to disapprove the plan.

In 1960, the Minutes reported that the President and Dean were considering plans for a sabbatical leave program. They encouraged faculty members to decide upon some well-defined projects for their sabbatical year. This program has never been implemented at the College, because the faculty will not entertain a motion to adopt the sabbatical program. In general, the faculty members interviewed expressed disinterest in sabbatical leaves and indicated they would rather have the funds set aside for this purpose added to their salaries. Moreover, most of the faculty had completed the doctorate, a justification they attributed to a sabbatical program, and they indicated that any additional academic interests they have can be satisfied in the summer months. Finally, some were concerned about the criteria that might be employed in determining who would be awarded the sabbatical leaves.

Interest in a College-wide innovation was expressed by the Dean in 1961, when he commented on the work of one committee and "urged open-mindedness on the part of the Faculty in the consideration of whatever innovations the committee proposed." Three months later the Dean reported: "The Rummel Committee is trying to form an opinion with regard to the worth of the trimester program and to the suitability of such a program if it is deemed worthy, at Maxwell." By March, lack of support for a reorganization of the College calendar was indicated in the following statement by the Dean: "While two or three departments had not yet reported on their reactions to a 3-3 plan, overall enthusiasm does not seem to be excessive." All departments had submitted their reactions to the 3-3 plan by May with the result that 2 departments were definitely in favor; 11 were opposed. The number in favor of the plan if departmental faculty were increased was 3 and 2 departments were non-committal.

Attempts to revise the College curriculum reappeared at the beginning of the 1963-1964 academic year and the Minutes recorded the following:

> Dean ________ reminded the Faculty that the Educational Policy Committee would shortly begin to concern itself in earnest with the mandate from the Faculty to study means by which the curriculum of the College should be revised. He pointed out that members of the E.P.C. had studied the bulletins published by many colleges comparable in size and aim to Maxwell during the summer as a preliminary to this study.
>
> An important function of the College, Dean ________ indicated, is currently not being fulfilled. This function is to explore avenues by which the effectiveness of Maxwell as a superior liberal arts institution may be substantially increased. Such avenues would extend and supplement the efforts of the College to improve its Faculty and the rigor of its curriculum. Dean ________ tentatively suggested that a means toward this goal of increased effectiveness would be to reduce the demands upon the student for sheer accretion of information and to increase opportunities for reflection and discourse. A College-wide program of discussion and study following a truncated first semester and prior to a full term second semester was viewed as a possible method of achieving this aim.[1]

---

[1] This proposal incorporates what has been called the "interim term," a one-month period in January which allows various programs to be offered that would be difficult or impossible to offer concurrently during the semester.

These proposals to date have not resulted in the adoption of any College-wide curricular changes or academic calendar. Maxwell College continued to operate within two 18-week semester periods. The Dean reported that although he favored a curricular revision, there was little likelihood of change in this area. Faculty activity during the 1964-1965 academic year has been with the distribution of requirements for graduation. The President's comment on the matter was: "The great need is to reorient the faculty to different ways of thinking, especially with regard to curricular change."

Maxwell College had also considered undergraduate study abroad. This proposed innovation reached the interest stage at the College and the opinion of the faculty was recorded in the Minutes:

> The Dean reported on action taken by the Educational Policy Committee with respect to the proposed Overseas Study Centers. The E.P.C. recommended to the Faculty that "Maxwell College express its skepticism concerning the feasibility of an . . . Overseas Study Centers Program." The Faculty supported the recommendation from the E.P.C. with only two dissenting votes.

Prior to this decision, Maxwell College had adopted the following educational programs: independent study (1954); first interdepartmental course (1957); interinstitutional cooperative program (1958); participation in advanced placement program (1958); non-Western studies (1958); and honors program (1960).

Both Maxwell and Fairfax had adopted programs which failed to fulfill their avowed purposes. Each college found it difficult to reverse an adoption decision. For example, Maxwell initiated a guest professor program in the fall of 1961. The purpose of the program was described in the College Bulletin:

> At various intervals throughout the year distinguished professors in the humanities visit the campus for periods of two days to two weeks, not merely to give a convocation address and meet informally with groups of students and faculty, but rather to teach portions of regular courses in the curriculum. In all cases, the guest professor gives a public lecture, but his main function is to teach--this is the unique feature of the program.

The discussions with some of the respondents did not reveal a great deal of support for the program and during the interview with the President he commented that the guest professor program never fully developed because it was limited to guest lectures rather than following the original proposal for outside scholars to take over the class. He stated that "faculty members were opposed because they wanted to teach their own classes." The failure of this part of the program has been a sharp disappointment to the President.

The compulsory reading program at Fairfax College has not been received with enthusiasm by either faculty or students. Since its adoption in 1959, and implementation in the fall of 1960, the program has undergone numerous revisions and leadership of the program has passed from one faculty member to another. The basic purpose of the program was to unify the College community through an exposure of faculty and students to a significant literary volume. For example, in the fall of 1964, all students and faculty read James Baldwin's The Fire Next Time. A Reading Program Committee was established to select volumes and to enlist support of faculty members in holding discussion sessions. One problem has been in developing a testing program to ensure that students have participated in the program. Both objective tests and essays had been employed to ensure student participation. The College newspaper pointed out some weaknesses of the tests used in the program:

> An essay is being used this term because other methods did not work. Originally, a multiple choice test was given, however, it was discovered that some students who had not read the book passed the tests and some who had read the book failed. The Honor System with an optional essay failed because very few persons wrote the essay.

Many faculty members were unenthusiastic about the program because it made heavy demands upon their already crowded schedules for reading essays and holding discussion groups. The students were, by and large, opposed to the program according to the Reading Program Committee chairman. In spite of this lack of support, the program has not been dropped and no suitable alternative had been proposed. Recently the faculty and administration have been exploring the possibility of using lay readers for the program; however, the success of the program remained uncertain.

The Innovative Process

Innovative programs at Fairfax may be proposed by anyone at the institution--faculty, administration, or students. There was evidence that many of the innovations originated with the President, but he seldom appeared before the faculty to advocate adoption of any particular innovation. An influential stated that "anyone can try any bright idea he wants to here." And, in fact, that seemed to be the case. No respondent interviewed could recall any instance when the President had refused a faculty member permission to introduce a program. He may not have enthusiastically supported all ideas, but he had never prohibited a new approach or program, as far as the investigator could determine. Moreover, during the interview with the President, he indicated that he saw part of his function as being available to faculty members and receptive to new ideas.

In addition to faculty-initiated innovations, the President, through frequent contact with faculty, stimulated interest in and support for a number of programs in which he was especially interested. A faculty member might "adopt" an idea from the President as his own and, therefore, the President was not usually perceived as the innovator, rather as one receptive to ideas from innovative faculty members. Nevertheless, influentials attributed a number of present practices and proposed future adoptions to the President.

Organizational norms which encouraged innovation within a permissive normative structure resulted in wide agreement of the faculty and administrators toward acceptance of change. This framework has almost become a tradition at the College, and a conscious effort was made to transfer that tradition to new faculty and some non-innovative faculty members. This tradition was referred to in the literature published by the College:

> Fairfax is a college with a long-standing openness to educational experimentation and innovation--and yet it has never been known as one of the "experimental colleges." Though there has never been a "Fairfax Plan," within a framework of the traditional liberal arts curriculum, Fairfax has been quick to adopt many of the fresh advances in higher education and has developed a number of significant innovations of its own.
>
> Fairfax College is an exciting and challenging place in which to work. Many things are happening so fast that it is difficult to keep abreast of all the details and still maintain an informed staff.
>
> The faculty is not self-satisfied or satisfied with Fairfax's educational programs. They are willing to try new things which promise improvement. They are flexible and open to changes.

Within these strong traditions for promoting innovations, it was difficult for Fairfax College to reject proposed innovations. The process of change at Maxwell appeared to operate quite differently.

Proposals for educational innovations at Maxwell were made primarily by the President and Dean. One influential commented that "proposed minor changes, for example, adding courses, come from individual professors or departments; major changes come from administrators and sometimes a committee." The administrative officers did report that they were a primary source of innovation. For anyone who proposed an innovation--administrator, faculty member, or committee--the "burden of proof is on the individual who proposes change," as reported by one influential. This in fact seemed to be the case; any innovator must "make his case" before a faculty which was aware but skeptical.

The President's efforts to promote innovation and the Dean's pleas for open-mindedness appeared to have had little impact. The respondents from the faculty continually characterized these concerns as the administrator's search for "publicity gimmicks," and replied that "change has no value in itself." In general, respondents considered the status quo satisfactory and indicated that the adoption of innovative educational programs would not enhance the College to any great degree; in fact, they felt there was a possibility that proposed changes would result in a less effective program.

One situation occurred while the investigator was on campus which illustrated the process of change at Maxwell. A small student musician group was given the opportunity to tour the Far East and South Asia in a foundation-sponsored program. The students would be on tour during the Christmas vacation and would be absent the first week of classes after the holidays. The leader of the group, a full-time faculty member, thought that if he brought the matter up at a faculty meeting, approval would not be given for the students involved to miss the week of classes. Therefore, he contacted each of the professors teaching the classes in which the students were enrolled and made separate arrangements with each for release of the students from the class for the time they would be absent.

Another example of the faculty's resistance to change was commented upon by the respondents and referred to in the Minutes. In January, 1963, the Dean reviewed at the faculty meeting the situation with respect to all those who had faculty status, that is, those who had faculty voting privileges. This included a number of administrative officers and staff, and the proposal was to limit faculty status to full-time faculty and academic administrative officers. The decision was postponed to the February faculty meeting. At that meeting, because of opposition from the faculty, the Dean requested permission to withdraw the recommendation that faculty voting privileges be changed. The faculty gave its permission.

The difficulty of promoting educational innovation among a faculty resistant to change and skeptical of the newer programs and practices confronted past and present innovators at Maxwell. The traditions for resisting change appeared to be rather strong and the normative structure of the organization operated to continue these traditions. New faculty members were often opposed to innovations which had been discussed since their joining the College and were non-committal toward those that had not been discussed, even though they were aware of the innovative programs. The respondents indicated that the faculty had a strong voice in curricular matters and proposed innovations were often seen as a means of reducing its control over the curriculum. A recent faculty action illustrating faculty decision-making norms in curricular affairs was reported in the Minutes when the Educational Policy Committee presented the following resolution:

> In the implementation of general policies established by the Faculty, the E.P.C. shall have the power to take final action, except that such action may, at the request of any Faculty member, be reviewed by the Faculty as a whole. . . . A motion from the floor asked that "may . . . be reviewed" be changed to read "must . . . be reviewed." The motion, as amended, was passed by the Faculty.

The history of innovations and processes of change at the high innovative and low innovative colleges reflected the interaction of the two sets of norms--the more permissive, vaguely defined performance norms and required participation norms at Fairfax, compared to the more restrictive, explicit performance normative structure and less required faculty participation norms at Maxwell. Individuals at Fairfax were encouraged to adopt educational innovations and proposed changes were seldom seen as violating any particular expectations held for the innovator. However, the requirement that innovators participate in most of the decision-making processes served to promote discussion of proposed innovations and eliminate those considered incompatible with the

College. College-wide adoptions were handled within the regular decision channels at the College, and since faculty were required to participate in these decisions, they were subjected to an analysis which built faculty commitment for innovations viewed as worthwhile for the College to adopt.

Innovations at Maxwell College were often viewed as being disruptive to the faculty performance norms, since a proposed practice might violate a required to prohibitive rule or regulation. Educational innovations were proposed by the administration rather than the faculty and were frequently seen as threats to the established interpersonal relationships. On the whole, faculty members did not perceive that they played a significant role in the decision-making processes and, therefore, there was little opportunity to assess, analyze, and develop commitment for a proposed change. Moreover, there was a feeling among most of the faculty that administration-proposed innovations were not especially worthwhile programs, and were referred to as attempts to reduce the control of the faculty over the curriculum.

Future Educational Innovations

With respect to future innovations at Fairfax and Maxwell, both colleges appeared to anticipate relatively little change in the immediate future. Maxwell College respondents indicated that they expected present policies and the basic educational program to continue in their present form. Both colleges had established committees to consider the size of their respective student bodies and the general consensus was that neither College was willing to increase its enrollment substantially.

The majority of respondents at Maxwell College expressed little confidence in any innovative programs, other than the one--interinstitutional cooperation--currently adopted. Educational programs and practices not meeting the innovative criteria were also given little or no support for trial or adoption at the College. The general tone of the College with respect to change was expressed by the President in his opening fall remarks to the student body and faculty:

> Maxwell College is defined by its philosophy, policies, and traditions as a distinct institution. It is subject to change as conditions change, but it is not a place where changes are introduced willy-nilly. This is not to say that change is not possible nor desirable. It is to say that most of us are here because Maxwell is Maxwell. We are not complacent, but neither are we ready to adopt selected liberal policies of other institutions in order to project an image of pseudo modernity. Neither are we adverse to leading the field when we find a good idea. . . .

Innovative activity within Fairfax College will probably continue, according to many of the respondents, but at a slower rate than has been true in the past. Influentials and non-influentials expressed the opinion that the College should make efforts to reassess its current adoptions and develop methods of making the innovative programs more effective, as well as decide about the final adoption of some innovations, e.g., the compulsory reading program. The innovative tone of Fairfax College was set forth in an address to the faculty during January, 1965, by the President of Fairfax when he made the following comments:

> In one of my first encounters with the Fairfax Board of Trustees . . . [as President], I said that Fairfax College has passed a point of no return, that it was on its way to becoming one of this nation's colleges of real distinction, but that I hoped it would become more than this: that it would become increasingly a college of real and peculiar significance. It would not be "good enough" simply to become "great and famous." I hold these views even more strongly today than I did then.
>
> For Fairfax to realize its potential, to fulfill its promise, to surmount its crisis, it is required that we do three things:
>
> 1) that we re-define and re-affirm our commitment to undergraduate liberal education;
> 2) that we engage, deliberately and continuously, in a process of evaluation of this institution, its educational program, and of our several roles in it;
> 3) that we continue, and with greater consistency and by more deliberate

> design, to build the atmosphere and the pattern for educational experimentation and innovation.
>
> . . . .
>
> I realize that on many campuses, perhaps even at Fairfax, innovation is a polar word. It calls forth in some excitement, hope, a warm rosy glow. In others it evokes a feeling of foreboding, discomfort, even a censorious contempt. I hope we can look at this factor in our educational equation with the greatest possible objectivity and dispassion.
>
> There is no virtue in innovation per se. There are obviously good innovations and bad innovations, and we cannot always tell which will be which. However, innovations good, bad, and indifferent we are destined to live with. If and when we lock the door against all innovation, we shall inevitably be shutting ourselves into rooms where the light grows dimmer and the air more stale. Any educational institution which in the middle of the Twentieth Century is going to remain alive and vigorous must be open to innovation and experimentation. . . .

The President of Fairfax College indicated during the interview that although the College was innovative, it was not experimental. Moreover, the College had lost and was losing a number of young faculty members who thought that Fairfax was not making enough significant gains in improvement of both its educational program and the quality of the student body. Since the majority of the faculty were opposed to any further expansion in the number of students, there were few inducements to convince the younger faculty to remain. However, as early as 1959, a proposal was made which, as it has developed, may provide a solution both for retaining younger, academically aggressive faculty members, and developing an experimental institution. The Minutes reported:

> [The President] reported that the administrative council had decided to proceed with all deliberate speed with the planning for an affiliated college.

During the first meeting of the faculty in the fall of 1964, the question of an affiliated college came before the faculty again:

> The Faculty recommended . . . that the plan for an auxiliary service college on the Fairfax campus . . . be more fully and appropriately drawn up.

The ability of the leadership at Fairfax College to bring the affiliated institution into being was realized as no mean task. If it is possible, the President's plans included that the new institution's faculty would be separate from the Fairfax faculty; it would be an experimental institution, probably not another liberal arts college; and it would provide a framework for recruitment of faculty interested in extensive experimentation, but would not change the basic purposes and character of Fairfax College. The President commented that as he envisioned the affiliated college, it would not require a separate and different administrative structure, but that the overlap between the two institutions would be at the level of the presidency and the board of trustees. Finally, he did not believe that the proposed institution would necessarily be church-related, but that it might be private and non-denominational.

Innovation and Religious Affiliation

One of the differences between Fairfax College and Maxwell College was that Fairfax was affiliated with a Protestant religious denomination, and Maxwell was an independent, non-denominational institution. This raised the question of the relationship between religious affiliation and adoption of educational innovations.

At Fairfax, 42 of the 86 individuals eligible for participation in the study were members of the religious denomination. Thirty of the 58 respondents were members of the religious group. Also, 11 of the 15 individuals identified as socially integrated individuals were affiliated with this church. Of the 12 influentials from whom complete data were secured, 10 influentials were members of the religious group. There were no prescriptions that in the recruitment of faculty members or administrative officers preference must be given to members of the church. However, the by-laws of the institution provided that the denomination be represented on the Board of Trustees and 12 of the 23-member Board were denominational members. With respect to the student body, approximately one-fourth were members of the religious group. This percentage has been decreasing for a number of years and the expectation was that a further decrease in the percentage was likely. Finally, the church has contributed less than $15,000 per year to the College.

The College describes its religious affiliation in the following terms:

> Through long generations of conflict over the relations between science and religion, many church-related colleges have had to submit at times to the doctrinaire anti-scientism of dominant elements in their denominations. Other colleges have broken all church ties and have gone their way as independent secular institutions. Fairfax has stubbornly clung to its [religious] connections, but also has established clearly its claim to be a free, uncensored intellectual community and uphold the highest academic standards for students and faculty.
>
> . . . .
>
> On the current American educational scene, Fairfax's major contribution may well be to provide a demonstration of how a church college can rise above parochial mediocrity and how any college, with courage and energy, can liberate its potential for creative educational advances.

Although a religiously affiliated institution, Fairfax had no required courses in religion for its students and did not require students to attend any of its religious services. Every Sunday morning at eleven o'clock there was an interdenominational religious service with attendance optional.

Maxwell College, as a non-denominational institution, offered two religion courses within the philosophy department; however, neither was required for the total student body. The following statement characterized the College's position on religion:

> Though Maxwell College is nonsectarian, it seeks to emphasize the ideals and practices of Christian manhood and womanhood. Students of many different religious faiths are enrolled at the College, and they are urged to affiliate with the church of their choice.

Fairfax and Maxwell were permissive with the faculty and students with respect to church attendance and affiliation. Since approximately one-half of the faculty at Fairfax were members of the religious denomination, one question asked during the interview was if respondents thought the College was innovative because of its religious affiliation. Faculty who were members of the denomination tended to see a strong relationship between innovation and religious affiliation. However, there were a number of exceptions, especially among the faculty who were not members of the denomination and even among influentials who were denominational members. During the interview with the President, he proposed that there existed at Fairfax College a "religious way of life" and a "Fairfax way of life." Moreover, he stated that "although these two areas overlap, they are distinct." Faculty who were members of the religious group tended to emphasize more, and think in terms of, the "religious way of life." Other faculty members and most administrative officers emphasized the "Fairfax way of life." The "Fairfax way of life" appeared to have incorporated those traditions, principles, and norms of the religious denomination which would enhance the College's development. These main principles were the ideals of "community" and "consensus"; they were sufficiently generalized concepts and, therefore, did not conflict with the unique purposes of Fairfax. Moreover, Maxwell College respondents also emphasized both of these principles as desired characteristics at the College. In summary, the data indicated that Fairfax College was innovative because of the unique characteristics of the College, and its innovativeness cannot be accounted for only because of its religious affiliation.

CHAPTER V

SOCIOMETRIC CHOICE AND THE ADOPTION OF INNOVATIONS

Chapters III and IV concerned the personal and organizational variables related to the adoption of educational innovations. In this chapter the sociometric choices are explored in greater detail to relate the social structure to the adoption of innovations. Moreover, an analysis of the programs and practices adopted at each college is presented in order to provide a conceptual framework which may be useful for further research. The observations in this section of the report are limited by incomplete data, but are offered in an attempt to reach a fuller understanding of the innovative process in both the high and low innovative colleges.

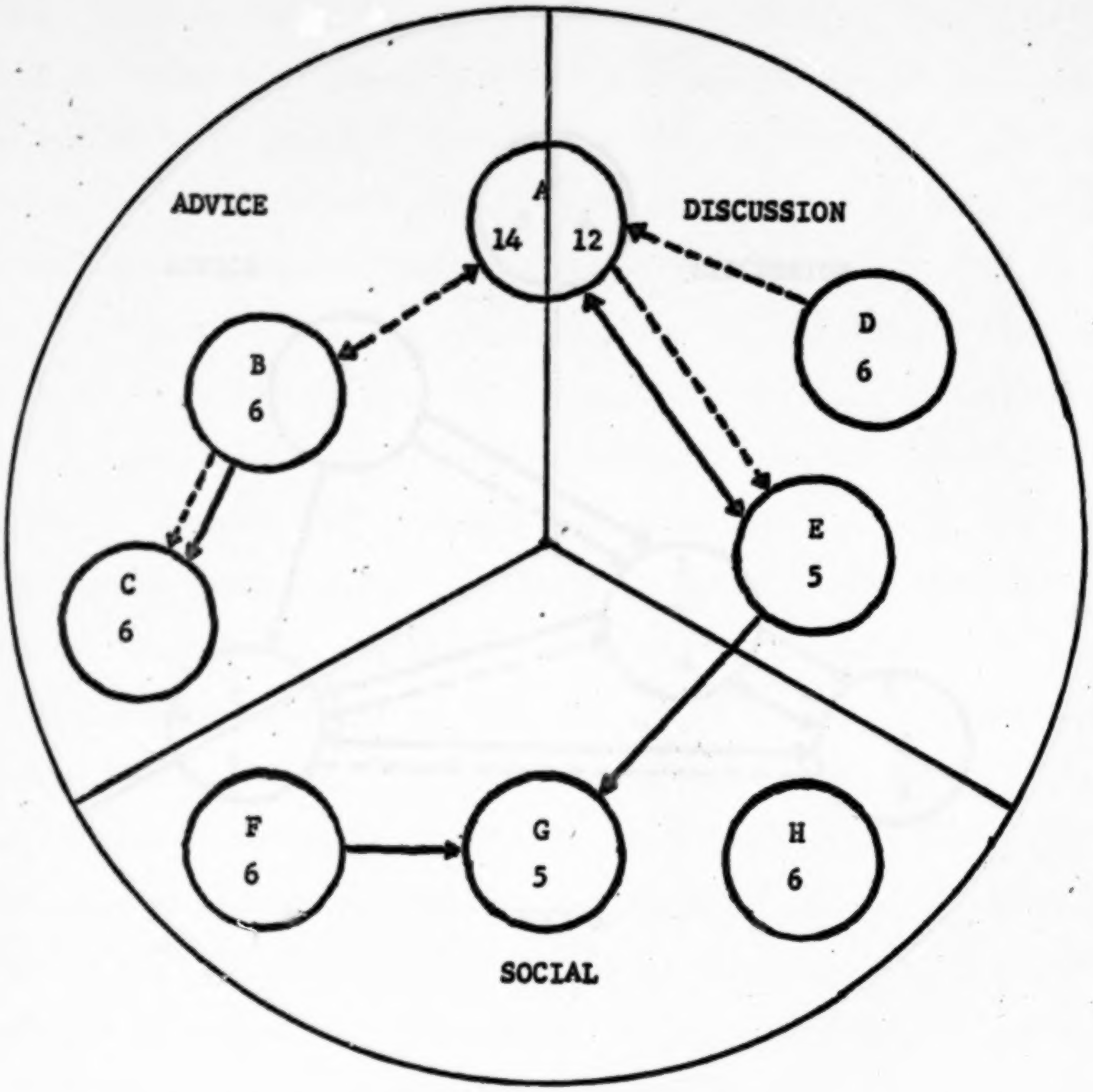
Cohesiveness within the Colleges

An important difference revealed by the analysis of the sociometric choices by the respondents was the degree of cohesiveness within Maxwell College compared to Fairfax College. The method of analysis was to identify the three most chosen individuals in each category of advisors, discussion partners, and friends. Theoretically, the maximum number of individuals who could be chosen was 9 at each college. Five individuals occupy these 9 positions at Maxwell; 8 individuals at Fairfax. In other words, there was more overlap at Maxwell, since one person, for example, was chosen both as advisor and friend. Administrators were omitted from the advice and discussion categories, since in small colleges such as these, academic administrative officers are often sought out for advice and problems are discussed with them. Figures 2 and 3 show the choices of the respondents including the number of times each individual was chosen. Also, within group choices are shown. All individuals chosen at Maxwell were faculty members; three were department heads. Six were department heads at Fairfax, including a former administrative officer, and one social choice was a non-academic administrative officer.

The association structure at Maxwell College reveals that 5 faculty members were identified in the leading group. Within group choices among these 5 individuals accounted for 12 of the 36 total choices for which data were available. On the first social choice of the Maxwell respondents, 40 per cent of the sample, including 4 of the leading group, could be "linked" to the individual most frequently chosen. With regard to second social choice of the Maxwell respondents, 45 per cent of the sample, including 4 of the leading group, can be "linked" to one another through one individual.

At Fairfax College, the association pattern was less tightly organized and included more individuals in the leading group. From the available data, within group choices of the 8 individuals chosen in the 3 categories, members of the leading group chose one another 12 times out of a total of 44 choices. With regard to the first social choice of the respondents, only 15 per cent of the sample can be "linked" together by the pattern of choices and no one from the leading group was included in this number. The respondents' second social choice produced a pattern which "linked" together 17 per cent of the sample, including 4 members of the leading group.

Although the data were not complete, the association structure shows that the faculty at Maxwell were more cohesive and individuals in the leading group served as advisors and friends, or discussion partners and friends. This

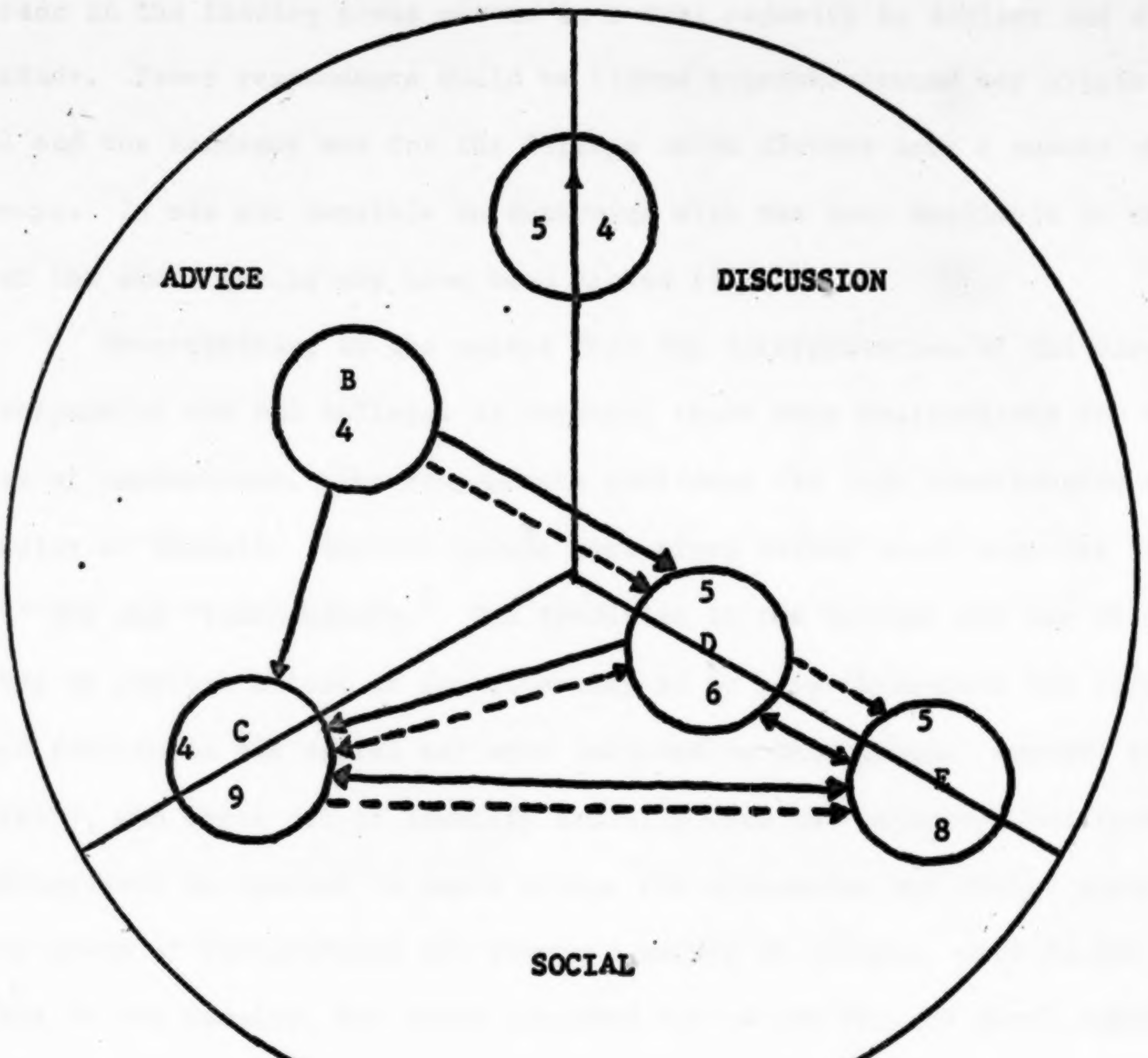

ADVICE
DISCUSSION
SOCIAL
A
14
12
B
6
C
6
D
6
E
5
F
6
G
5
H
6

Note: Numbers indicate number of times chosen by respondents.

Solid arrows indicate social choices within leading groups.

Dotted arrows indicate advice or discussion choices within leading group.

Fig. 2.--Leading Group at Fairfax College


5
4
ADVICE
DISCUSSION
B
4
5
D
6
4
C
9
5
E
8
SOCIAL

Note: Numbers indicate number of times chosen by respondents.
Solid arrows indicate social choices within leading group.
Dotted arrows indicate advice or discussion choices within leading group.

Fig. 3.--Leading Group at Maxwell College

pattern is contrasted with Fairfax which included more individuals in the leading group and less cohesion among the individuals at the College. Only one person in the leading group served in a dual capacity as advisor and discussion partner. Fewer respondents could be linked together around any single individual and the tendency was for the College to be divided into a number of small groups. It was not possible to determine with the data available to what extent the small groups may have been linked together.

Nevertheless, to the extent that the interpretation of the association structure of the two colleges is correct, there were implications for the adoption of innovations. The respondents confirmed the high cohesiveness of the faculty at Maxwell. The two groups most often talked about were the "social set" and the "independents." One tradition at the College was for the faculty wives to publish a list of social events to be held throughout the year and most faculty in the social set were included in this group. Another group of faculty, who chose not to identify socially with the majority, had broken off and appeared to operate in small groups for discussion and social gatherings. This group of independents was composed mainly of younger, more recent appointments to the faculty, but often included one or two tenured staff members who preferred to identify with an independent group rather than the social set.

Prior research has demonstrated that the evaluation of innovations takes place within established relationships which serve other functions, such as friendships and advisors.[1] Moreover, Katz and Lazarsfeld pointed out that success of an attempt to change an individual's opinion or attitudes depended upon the resistance to or support for the proposed change the individual encountered in his group.[1] In a highly cohesive leading group which is linked to a majority of the faculty, as seems to be the case at Maxwell, the support of the leading group would be essential to successful innovation. However, while the leading group was knowledgeable about educational innovations, it did not voice strong support for them.

---

[1] Eugene A. Wilkening, "Roles of Communicating Agents in Technological Change in Agriculture," Social Forces, XXXIV (March, 1956), 366-67.

The leading group at Fairfax College was connected with a number of small and apparently unrelated groups. The leading group was not as cohesive as its counterpart at Maxwell, and there were few ties linking together a significant number of faculty members. In this type of situation, a proposed innovation could be supported by some members of the leading group and the individuals related to them; however, it would be difficult for the opponents of the innovation to organize effectively against its adoption, since their support would not come from a majority of the faculty. Therefore, not only was there more support for the innovations at Fairfax College in that the respondents generally favored adoption, but those who opposed change may have found it difficult to build sufficient support to prevent adoption.

The opposition at Maxwell College to educational innovation may be accounted for in part by the lack of support for innovations per se; however, additional factors are to be taken into account. The data in Chapter IV indicated that in the areas outside of curriculum and student affairs, the Maxwell faculty participated significantly less in the decision-making processes at the College than the Fairfax faculty. The respondents perceived that they did not have a strong voice in many areas at the College. They also tended to view proposed changes as attempts to further reduce the decision-making power the faculty possessed. Each innovation, if implemented, carries with it a number of anticipated consequences and a number of unanticipated consequences.[1] It was the unanticipated consequences that appeared to be of concern to the respondents, and especially to the members of the leading group. The acceptance of innovations, mainly proposed by the administrative officers, meant a possible disruption in the interpersonal relationships within the institution and the development of a new leading group. The disruption of the relationships of the leading group with its vested interests throughout the faculty would have further consequences for the relationship between the leading group and the President.

---

[1] Katz and Lazarsfeld, op. cit., p. 130.

Faculty-Administration Conflict

The analysis of the sociometric data also tended to confirm the strained relationships between the faculty and the President at Maxwell compared to the relationship of the Fairfax President with his faculty. Tables 28 and 29 show the number of times members of the leading group in each college chose the President, Dean, other members of the leading group, and other individuals outside the leading group. One important difference is that the President of Maxwell College received no choices from any member of the leading group for which data were available. On the other hand, the President of Fairfax College was chosen by four members of the leading group. The conflict implied by the lack of choice of the President at Maxwell, the data presented in Chapter IV, as well as the comments from the respondents, appeared to serve as an element making the faculty more cohesive. This attribute of conflict has been observed by Coser:

---

[1] See Paul F. Lazarsfeld, "The Social Sciences and the Study of Administration: A Rationale," in Lawrence W. Downey and Frederick Enns (eds.), The Social Sciences and Educational Administration (Edmonton, Canada: University of Alberta, 1963), p. 7.

TABLE 28

SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES OF THE LEADING GROUP AT FAIRFAX COLLEGE

Leading Group Member	President	Dean	Inside Group Choices	Outside Group Choices	Total
A	1	1	3	3	8
B	-	3	5	1	9
C	-	-	-	-	-
D	1	-	1	7	9
E	1	1	3	4	9
F	1	2	1	5	9
G	-	-	-	-	-
H	-	-	-	-	-
Total choices per individual	4	7	1.5	.3	44

TABLE 29

SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES OF THE LEADING GROUP AT MAXWELL COLLEGE

Leading Group Member	President	Dean	Inside Group Choices	Outside Group Choices	Total
A	-	-	-	-	-
B	-	2	3	4	9
C	-	1	3	5	9
D	-	1	4	4	9
E	-	2	2	5	9
Total choices per individual	-	6	2.4	.3	36

> Internal social conflicts which concern goals, values or interests that do not contradict the basic assumptions upon which the relationship is founded tend to be positively functional for the social structure. Such conflicts tend to make possible the readjustment of norms and power relations within groups in accordance with the felt needs of its individual members or subgroups.[1]

While conflict can be destructive of group unity, it often contributes to the maintenance of group boundaries and prevents withdrawal of members from a group.[2] The conflict between the leading group with its supporters at Maxwell and the President appeared to function to maintain the present decision-making powers of the faculty. Moreover, the conflict was not over the ideal of a liberal arts college, but the means by which that goal could be attained. Since both the faculty members and the President expressed a high commitment to the liberal arts function of the College, the conflict tended to be centered around the role of each within the institution. The fact that the concept of an institution devoted to the liberal arts was accepted by the faculty and the President constituted a unifying bond between them.

Since most innovations were acknowledged by both parties as coming from the President, the existing conflict tended to prevent a clear assessment of the value of a particular innovation. Therefore, the impact of the conflict upon the adoption of educational innovation is difficult to assess. One interpretation may be that the faculty opposed innovations because there was little value to be obtained for the institution from adoption. Another interpretation would be that the intrinsic value of an innovation was seldom the issue, since any change coming from the President was to be opposed. This would appear to be the case in the faculty's rejection of the sabbatical leave policy advanced by the President some years ago. In analyzing community conflicts, Coleman pointed out how conflict often supersedes particular issues:

---

[1] Lewis A. Coser, The Functions of Social Conflict (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956), p. 151.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

> Many conflicts which appear to be centered around other issues are in fact a result of the existing hostility between two groups in the community. In such disputes, the particular issue involved can hardly be considered a unit in itself--it is only part of a continuing conflict, periodically active, the rest of the time languishing. These antagonisms are vestiges of previous disputes which often leave the community divided, and thus "load the dice" against peaceful resolution of future problems.[1]

The existence of conflict within an institution would have consequences throughout its components and especially for innovations since adoption always implies some change. Conflicts at Fairfax College were not as pronounced and involved the balancing of interests of the younger, academically aggressive faculty members with the interests of the older faculty who were often members of the supporting church. The President of Fairfax had actively recruited these younger men and yet was also a member of the church. The member of the leading group who served as advisor and discussion leader had recently held an academic administrative post and, consequently, there was little evidence of a conflict between the faculty or the leading group and the President.

Further exploration of the high degree of cohesion among the faculty and the conflict between faculty and the President at Maxwell College compared to the absence of each of these conditions at Fairfax College leads to a consideration of the types of programs and practices adopted at each college. This analysis is the subject of the next section of the report.

Typology of Innovation

The number of distinct characteristics concerning a program or practice is probably impossible to enumerate. Although there are shortcomings in developing any typology of innovations, there seemed to be three features of the innovations reported by the institutions in this study which may provide some further understanding of the adoptions by the high and low innovative institutions. The first characteristic concerned the financial cost involved in adopting a program. For example, educational television is expensive to install in classrooms and funding sabbatical leaves involves a substantial financial item for a college. Reorganizing the academic calendar and instituting team teaching, for example, are accomplished at relatively little financial cost to the college.

---

[1] James S. Coleman, Community Conflict (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957), p. 6.

The second classification of innovations deals with what segment of the institution is likely to have control over an adopted program. While ultimate control resides in the board of trustees of a college, it can be argued that some innovations are more likely to be under control of the administration and others under the control of faculty. A divisional organization, for example, is basic to the administrative organization of the college and probably would be controlled by the administration. On the other hand, an honors program within the curriculum would more likely be under faculty control in terms of courses offered, students admitted, and faculty selected to teach courses at that level.

The third characteristic of the adopted programs and practices is more difficult to describe, since it incorporates a feature seldom associated with innovations. This characteristic refers to the extent to which the innovation is supported by the traditional values of liberal arts colleges as they have developed in this country compared to adoptions which are debatable practices or programs and considered by some to violate the colleges' historical concerns and image. This image has been described in various ways, but one author stated it this way in describing the English prototype of the independent college of liberal arts and sciences:

> This college was dedicated to teaching and assumed that its duties to the student extended to his total education, intellectual, social and moral. Therefore, the college was ideally residential, and the studies were prescribed. The purpose of the intellectual aspect of this education was to train the student's mind by rigorous discipline and to stock it with the necessary knowledge for living well in his society. This was the educational basis of the traditional college of the nineteenth century in the United States; and essentially it still exists, though its purpose has been liberalized and enlarged and its methods of instruction today are enlightened and improved.[1]

Therefore, the third classification attempts to signify, first, whether or not the adopted program or practice is supported by the traditional values incorporated in the prototype of the American college. Second, the classification identifies those innovations which appear to be generally compatible with the traditional values of a liberal arts college, although the values would not strongly support or oppose adoption. These programs have been termed "consensual" innovations. The third element within the category concerns those innovations which tend to be incompatible with the traditional values and have been identified as "debatable" innovations. While debatable programs and practices have their supporters and opponents, adoption generally means a disruption or replacement of the traditional values supporting liberal arts education. An example of a traditional innovation is the tutorial system which is strongly supported by the traditional values incorporated in the English prototype college.

Freshman seminars, for example, are classified as consensual innovations since seminars have been traditionally part of a liberal arts college. This program is innovative in that it provides a seminar experience at the first year level and alters somewhat the usual relationship between freshman students and major professors. An illustration of a debatable innovation is a work-study program. These programs combine academic and work experiences, are not supported by the traditional concerns of the liberal arts, and are not widely supported by those individuals related to liberal arts colleges. The classification is presented in Table 30.

---

[1] William C. DeVane, "A Time and a Place for Liberal Education," Liberal Education, L.(May, 1964), 207.

If the placement of programs and practices within the typology is acceptable, the classification reveals that Maxwell College had adopted no debatable innovations in contrast to Fairfax College, which has adopted six in this category. Fairfax College has adopted all but one program which might be supported by traditional values incorporated within a liberal arts college, but it has adopted fourteen programs, in contrast to Maxwell's five, in the debatable and consensual categories. A final observation about Maxwell is that of those programs it has adopted, except for interinstitutional cooperation, all fall within the area--the curriculum--over which the faculty exercises a large measure of control.

The typology remains to be perfected in order to make it more useful; and further research will assist in identifying innovations with characteristics which will aid in the classification. While it represents only a beginning, the typology may facilitate the analysis of an institution's response to change in relationship to its external environment as well as the impact of change upon the interpersonal relationships within the institution.

TABLE 30

TYPOLOGY OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS

	Financial Cost			
	High		Low	
	Control		Control	
	Administration	Faculty	Administration	Faculty
Debatable Innovations	Teaching Machines (F) Television Work-Study	Programmed Instruction (F)	Faculty-Student Governing Committees (F) Undergraduate Study Abroad (F)	Academic Calendar (F)
Consensual Innovations		Non-Western Studies (F, M) Language Laboratory (F, M)	Divisional Organization (F) Interinstitutional Cooperation (F, M)	Advanced Placement (F, M) Comprehensive Exams (F) Freshman Seminars (F) Independent Study (F, M) Team Teaching (F)
Traditional Innovations	Sabbatical Leave (F)	Honors Program (F, M)		Bilingual Courses (F) Interdepartmental Studies (F, M) Tutorial System

F indicates program has been adopted by Fairfax College.
M indicates program has been adopted by Maxwell College.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The adoption of educational innovations and the receptivity of colleges to change have been the main concerns of this report. Previous chapters have explored the background of the problem, the experimental design of the study, and the analysis of the personal and organizational dimensions of an institution and their relationship to adoption of innovations. This chapter summarizes the problem, discusses the major conclusions and considers the implications that may be drawn from the research.

Summary

The Problem

The central problem in the present research was to explore the factors related to the adoption of educational innovations by a private, liberal arts college. Since previous research had indicated that individual adoption was significantly related to a network of interpersonal relations, but had not included a systematic analysis of adoptions by organizations, both of these features were incorporated into the research. By employing a social systems model, an attempt was made to answer three questions: (1) What personal variables characterize individuals in an innovative college? (2) What features of the organization's normative structure operate to promote change? And (3) what factors operate within the relationship between the individuals and the organization which account for the college's receptivity to educational innovations?

The first concern of the study was to identify an innovative liberal arts college and contrast it with a similar college which had adopted few or no educational innovations. Moreover, a measure of social integration was necessary and individuals characterized as socially integrated were called "influentials." The social systems model incorporates two dimensions: the personal and the organizational. The personal dimension was evaluated through the use of a standard personality instrument. Sorokin and Merton provided the framework for assessing the organizational dimension in terms of normative structures.

Study Design and Methodology

The colleges included in the study were selected from 131 private, liberal arts colleges located in six Midwestern states. Data from a survey instrument supplied by these colleges regarding their degree of innovativeness resulted in the selection of two institutions--a high innovative college and a low innovative college--which were similar in size of student body, full-time faculty and educational expenditure per student.

The subjects for the investigation consisted of the full-time faculty members and administrative officers at each college. The study groups consisted of 58 respondents at the high innovative college and 53 respondents at the low innovative college. The instruments used in the study included an index of innovativeness for the 131 colleges and four self-report instruments for the study group. A brief description of each follows:

Index of Innovativeness: a mailed questionnaire for reporting the number of educational innovations adopted and the number of innovations under consideration. A weighted score distinguished institutional-wide adoptions from adoptions within a segment of the college for 22 programs or practices.

Checklist of Programs: a direct, self-report instrument consisting of 22 programs and practices to determine the awareness of respondents of educational innovations.

Sociometric Questionnaire: a three-question instrument which asked respondents to identify three individuals who served as advisors, three individuals who served as discussion partners, and three individuals whom they met with socially at the college.

Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire: a standardized, direct, self-report instrument consisting of 187 items. Each trait is bipolar with low scores representing one pole and high scores representing the other. The instrument provided measures of the relative strength of 16 personality components.

Organizational Profile: a direct, self-report instrument consisting of 40 items designed to measure the normative structure of a college. The instrument was constructed by the investigator and was based upon the normative framework of Sorokin and Merton. The items, developed from the literature in higher education, were designed to assess performance norms and norms regarding faculty participation in the decision-making process.

Findings

The results of the innovativeness index indicated that of the 22 programs surveyed within the 131 colleges, 11 met the operational criteria as "innovations" and 11 were not classified as innovative since they had been adopted by more than half of the responding colleges. The weighted scores ranged from 0 to 19, which took into account those innovations adopted throughout the institution, innovations adopted by a unit of the college, and those under consideration by a faculty committee.

The Checklist of Programs analysis revealed that respondents at the high innovative college did not differ significantly (mean score 20.31) from respondents at the low innovative college (mean score 20.36) in awareness of educational programs and practices, including those identified as "innovations."

The sociometric questionnaire identified 15 individuals at each college who were socially integrated. At the high innovative college 12 of these individuals were included in the sample and at the low innovative college 11 were included. At least one of these influentials served on each of the college's faculty committees. A comparison of the mean ages between the influentials at Fairfax--the high innovative college--(mean 45.50) with the influentials at Maxwell--the low innovative college--(mean 42.36) did not reveal statistically significant differences. Influentials at Fairfax tended to have longer service (mean 15.33 years) with the college than influentials at Maxwell (mean 8.81 years) and this difference was significant at the 1 per cent level.

The mean age of the total sample at Fairfax College was not statistically different from the total sample at Maxwell College (41.34 years for Fairfax and 40.23 years for Maxwell). Respondents at Fairfax tended to have more years of service (mean 10.14 years) than respondents at Maxwell (7.26 years) and this difference was significant at the 5 per cent level.

The analysis of the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire produced results that were too small to yield statistically significant differences between the groups at each college. Although there were differences in the mean scores between influentials in each college, these differences were not sufficient to reject the null hypothesis.

The Organizational Profile data were reported by per cent in the following categories of responses: required, recommended, permitted, prohibited, and number of no answer and other responses. The chi square statistic was employed to test for significant differences between the required and prohibited responses compared to recommended and permitted responses. The major findings were the faculty performance norms were more permissive at Fairfax College compared to Maxwell College; however, faculty participation in decision-making norms was more required at Fairfax College than at Maxwell College, where faculty participation was more recommended and permitted. These findings were supported by the following data:

1. Fairfax College respondents tended to view faculty observation of instruction by other faculty members as more recommended and permitted than Maxwell College respondents, and this difference was significant at the 1 per cent level.

2. Maxwell College faculty were more often required to develop close personal relationships with students than faculty members at Fairfax, significant at the 1 per cent level.

3. The faculty at Maxwell College tended to be required to explore interdepartmental studies more than the Fairfax College faculty, significant at the 5 per cent level.

4. At Fairfax College 22 per cent of the respondents reported that substitutions to the college's general education requirements were prohibited; 42 per cent of the Maxwell respondents answered that substitutions were prohibited.

5. Fairfax College respondents were more likely to be required to participate in selection of candidates for faculty replacements and additions than respondents at Maxwell College, significant at the 1 per cent level.

6. Respondents at Fairfax College tended to be required to participate more in decisions establishing general policies on promotion and tenure than Maxwell College respondents, significant at the 1 per cent level.

7. Faculty participation in decisions regarding promotion from one academic rank to another was perceived as being more required at Fairfax College than at Maxwell College, significant at the 1 per cent level.

8. At Fairfax College 7 per cent of the respondents reported that the faculty was prohibited from participating in the decisions determining the use of the college's financial resources; 21 per cent of Maxwell respondents stated that faculty participation in these decisions was prohibited.

In the areas of faculty participation in decision-making explored in this research, the Fairfax respondents reported that the faculty tended to be more required to participate in decisions than the Maxwell faculty, except in the area of student affairs, e.g., the determining of admission requirements, and awarding scholarships and other financial aids. The following findings reflected that faculty participation was more required in these decisions at Maxwell compared to Fairfax College:

1. Maxwell College faculty participation in decisions establishing admissions requirements tended to be more required than faculty participation in these decisions at Fairfax College, significant at the 1 per cent level.

2. Faculty participation in decisions establishing policies for awarding scholarships and financial aids was more required at Maxwell than at Fairfax College, significant at the 1 per cent level.

The interview comments, publications of each college, and information in the faculty minutes tended to support the more permissive performance normative structures at the high innovative college as contrasted with the more explicit and less permissive norms at the low innovative college. Furthermore, the faculty at Fairfax were required to participate to a greater extent in most decision-making processes than the faculty at Maxwell College. The interactions of two sets of norms--permissive performance norms and norms requiring faculty participation in decision-making--served to promote change and the adoption of compatible educational innovations at Fairfax College, and to prevent appraisal and adoption of innovations at Maxwell College. Proposed innovations at Maxwell College have not been readily adopted and attempts to introduce change have met with little success. In view of the permissive normative structure at Fairfax College and the traditions supporting a receptivity for change, proposed innovations were often adopted and were difficult to abandon once adopted even if they failed to be as successful as predicted.

An analysis of the sociometric data indicated that there was a high degree of social cohesiveness within Maxwell College compared to Fairfax College. Individuals at Maxwell who were members of the leading group tended to serve in dual capacities as advisors, or discussion partners, and friends. At Fairfax, only one individual served in a dual capacity, and the respondents indicated that they turned to one person as an advisor and another as a friend. Moreover, the data revealed approximately 40 per cent of the respondents could be "linked" to one member of the leading group at Maxwell compared to Fairfax College where about 15 per cent of the sample could be "linked" to a member of the leading group.

The sociometric data also supported the inferences in the respondents' comments of a conflict at Maxwell College between the faculty and the President. The conflict appeared to promote the cohesiveness of the faculty and, furthermore, tended to have an impact upon the diffusion of educational innovations. Since most innovations were viewed as being proposed by the President, the resistance to changes may be accounted for in part because it was the President who proposed them.

Finally, the results of the study indicated that from a typology of innovations, Maxwell College was more reluctant than Fairfax to adopt debatable innovations, and had adopted innovations classified as consensual and traditional, since they were more compatible with the traditional values incorporated within the liberal arts tradition. Debatable innovations were those which would be strongly opposed by proponents of the traditional functions of a liberal arts college. Moreover, Maxwell College had adopted innovations primarily which were under the control of the faculty as contrasted to Fairfax College which had adopted innovations under the control of the administration as well as the faculty.

Conclusions

On the basis of the research, the following conclusions were reached regarding the major hypotheses of the study.

Hypothesis 1

> Full-time faculty members and administrators in both high and low innovative liberal arts colleges do not differ significantly in awareness of educational innovations.

This hypothesis is accepted. The data presented in Chapter III show that respondents at each college were knowledgeable about most educational programs, both innovative and non-innovative, even though only one innovative program had been adopted at the low innovative college. Moreover, some of the innovations had been proposed at the college, but had been rejected by the faculty.

Hypothesis 2

> Non-influentials among the administrative officers and full-time faculty members possess a pattern of personal variables not significantly different from those persons who are identified as influentials within the same groups at the liberal arts college.

Hypothesis 2 was confirmed.

Hypothesis 3

> Influentials in a high innovative liberal arts college exhibit a significantly different set of personal variables from influentials within a similar college characterized by having adopted few educational innovations.

Hypothesis 3 was not confirmed. The data indicated that the differences between means of influential groups on the 16 personal variables were not statistically significant to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4

> Organizational norms are perceived as more "recommended" and "permitted" in a high innovative college, and in a low innovative college norms are characterized as more "obligatory" and "prohibited."

This hypothesis was, in part, confirmed. While it was not possible to state that in every activity explored the normative structure was perceived as more permissive at the high innovative college, the data indicated that Fairfax College frequently exhibited permissive normative performance expectations. Expected behavior was governed by a set of norms often viewed as recommended and permitted at Fairfax, but the norms at Maxwell College were perceived as more obligatory and prohibited. Another set of norms concerning faculty participation in decision-making tended to be more obligatory for the Fairfax faculty than for the Maxwell College faculty. The exception was in the area of student affairs where Maxwell faculty participation in decision-making was perceived as more required than at Fairfax College. One difficulty with Hypothesis 4 was that it failed to distinguish clearly between the two sets of norms within a collegiate institution.

A Discussion of the Conclusions

The research reported in this study is limited by several considerations and the reader should make cautious use of the findings. First, the sample contains two institutions and generalizations to other "innovative" colleges are tenuous at most. Second, despite the use of several criteria of similarity, it is impossible to state that the colleges are equivalent on the major characteristics. Third, the behaviors studied are restricted by the precision of the instruments employed.

The adoption process for a collegiate institution is similar to other research findings. A college seems to go through the same "stages" of adoption as reported by Lionberger.[1] Moreover, there is some evidence that a college which is reluctant to adopt one innovation tends to be reluctant to adopt other innovations. Mort observed this phenomenon in the adoption process for communities.[2]

The administrators were innovators in both institutions studied. Individual faculty members at the high innovative institution were also identified as innovators. Although it is difficult to determine after the fact the individual who proposed a particular innovation, there were indications to support Brickell's contention that faculty members are not change-agents for innovations of major scope. The administrator may promote or inhibit change through the use of authority, since, as Brickell pointed out, proposed changes generate mixed reactions which may prevent consensus and result in stagnation.[3]

Another equally important finding of the study supports the view of Miles that in the absence of an objective evaluation of a proposed innovation, it is validated by means of social support.[4] The respondents at Fairfax College supported most innovations in spite of the fact that only recently had they begun to express considerable concern for undertaking an appraisal of the changes already made. The influentials at Fairfax have consistently given strong support to the promotion of innovations on campus, but there are the limitations to this support as Miles commented:

---

[1] Lionberger, op. cit.

[2] Mort, loc. cit., p. 326.

[3] Henry M. Brickell, "State Organization for Educational Change: A Case Study and a Proposal," Innovation in Education, ed. Matthew B. Miles (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), p. 503.

[4] Ibid., p. 475.

> If the innovative group draws high-status members from the target system in which innovation is contemplated, it is more likely to have its recommendations accepted, particularly if the group is strongly legitimated by the system, and maintains clear, open communication with it. However, these conditions, if met thoroughly, also mean that the norms and demands of the target system exert a good deal of influence on the innovating group; thus the innovations achieved are likely to be moderate rather than radical in nature.[1]

The remark of the President at Fairfax and others that the College was innovative but not experimental, as well as the attempt to found a new institution outside of the normative structure of the College, illustrates this point.

The major conclusions of the study concern the relationship between the normative structure of the organization and the adoption of innovations. The subtle interplay between proposed change and organizational norms is only hinted at by statements that "the norms of the system, whether traditional or innovative, affect the diffusion of innovations in that system."[2] Although the techniques for identifying norms need a great deal of refinement, the evidence clearly shows that normative patterns are fruitful avenues for research in the study of organizations.

The study demonstrates that sensitivity to innovations is, as March and Simon point out, a function of the relevance of the innovation to the needs of the specific unit involved.[1] The propensity toward change is one aspect of the normative structure in terms of the behavior expectations for individuals and groups within the organization. Moreover, the data indicate the importance of participation in decision-making and support the view of March and Simon that "from the point of view of the organization, participation in decision-making is a way of enlisting the powers of the subgroup to enforce the norms of the organization."[2] The findings indicate that normative expectations of performance and involvement in decision-making at both colleges appeared to operate, as Clark observed, through the process of (1) recruitment, in which the college recruits individuals with points of view appropriate for its character; (2) interpersonal socialization, in which experienced faculty and administrators orient the recruit, informally and often unconsciously, as well as formally and deliberately; and (3) work socialization, where the demands, pressures, and rewards induce a point of view most compatible to the institution.[3]

---

[1] Ibid., p. 643.

[2] Gerhard Eichholz and Everett M. Rogers, "Resistance to the Adoption of Audio-Visual Aids by Elementary School Teachers: Contrasts and Similarities to Agriculture Innovation," ibid., p. 313.

The conclusions evaluated in this chapter deal primarily with analyzing the factors which accounted for the innovativeness at Fairfax College. However, the lack of receptivity to change at Maxwell College was explored at length and requires an explanation. The normative structures differed in a number of important respects as the data indicated, and an appropriate assessment of these differences may be related to the pattern of vested interests that seemed to operate at Maxwell. Parsons has stated that "it is inherent in the nature of an institutional system that it should create, and is in part supported by, a complex system of vested interests."[1] The interests which are "vested" are oriented to the maintenance of established arrangements.[2] At Maxwell, the relationships between the administration and faculty, among the faculty members, and between faculty and students were embedded in a normative structure which appeared to satisfy the majority of faculty respondents. Attempts by the administration to introduce change were vigorously opposed, and the data suggest that innovations were perceived as disruptions to a relationship over which the faculty exercised a great deal of control and those areas closely related to it, e.g., curriculum and student affairs. Merton observed that "vested interests oppose any new order which either eliminates or at least makes uncertain their differential advantage deriving from the current arrangements."[3] Proposed innovations often seemed to be perceived in this manner, in spite of the innovator's efforts to assure the faculty that basic relationships were unaffected. Furthermore, the operation of vested interests of the faculty may be one way of explaining its refusal to adopt programs not meeting the innovative criteria, e.g., sabbatical leave, as well as its reluctance to accept a redefinition of faculty status and to honor the administration's request to establish a faculty committee to evaluate promotions, granting of tenure, and salary increments.

---

[1] James G. March and Herbert A. Simon, Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 197.

[2] Ibid., p. 81.

[3] Burton R. Clark, "Faculty Culture," The Study of Campus Cultures, ed. Terry F. Lunsford (Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1963), p. 46.

Fairfax College and Maxwell College were, on the basis of one measure, extremes, and as extremes presented a number of common characteristics. The research reported in this study remains exploratory. Nevertheless, with the analysis undertaken thus far, a further assessment is possible of the differences and similarities between high and low innovative colleges.

---

[1] Parsons, op. cit., p. 313.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Merton, op. cit., p. 201.

Implications

The findings and conclusions provide justification for the following implications:

1. The adoption of educational innovations by a collegiate institution can be fruitfully explored by the Getzels social systems model and by employing the techniques developed in related disciplines. The adoption process should take into account the adoption units, especially the compatibility of the proposed innovation with the potential receiving unit. Colleges chosen as prototypes for a particular innovation should have a history of prior adoptions.

2. Colleges which desire to modify their educational programs through the adoption of innovative programs and practices need to assess their recruitment and selection policies, and the formal as well as informal expectations they hold for members of the organization. The types of rules and regulations, and the permissiveness allowed organizational members, may be expected to affect their adaptability to proposed changes.

3. The involvement of the faculty in the decision-making processes of the institution will have an impact on acceptance of change. Participation builds commitment to the total college, rather than a single department, and permits proposed innovations to proceed past the awareness stage to adoption on a trial basis. Moreover, participation will allow innovations to be proposed by various individuals with faculty support and will seldom be presented directly from the administrative officers for adoption by the faculty.

4. The findings suggest that unless an innovation can be related to, or incorporated within, the existing normative structure, it is unlikely to elicit strong support. Innovations which are described as able to assist the college perform its present function more effectively and efficiently are more

likely to be adopted. Colleges cannot be expected to accept change for the sake of change.

5. A significant implication of the study is related to the leadership styles of the two Presidents of each college. Although both were perceived as innovators, the President of Fairfax College had been more successful in bringing about proposed changes. He seems to have been successful for at least three important reasons: first, he had resisted attempts to establish explicit, less permissive normative expectations in order to promote an openness to innovation so that faculty would feel free to initiate or to consider a proposed change; second, he was available for consultation with faculty members, shared his ideas freely with an interested member, and did not oppose any educational program or practice an innovator proposed; and third, he supported a set of norms that assured the faculty's participation in the governance of the institution. Proposed innovations were discussed in the committees that had decision-making power and incompatible programs were rejected at this level, rather than by the President's decision alone. The less permissive performance norms at Maxwell coupled with a restricted degree of faculty participation in the decision-making processes appeared to promote greater distance between the faculty and the President. While it is the institution's choice to decide whether or not to adopt proposed educational innovations, the leadership style of the President appears to be highly related to successful change.

The research reported in this study has supplied partial answers to the questions posed. However, there are several suggestions that may be made which will assist further research in the study of the adoption of innovations and the receptivity of colleges to change.

1. Since the techniques and procedures employed in this investigation

were limited to two institutions, it is essential that the study be replicated with other institutions. Additional private colleges as well as public colleges and more complex public and private institutions need to be studied in order to draw more valid conclusions and generalizations.

2. A longitudinal study of a college or university which has been predicted to undergo change through the adoption of innovations would provide important data concerning the identification and characteristics of innovators, or change-agents, and evolution of normative structures.

3. While the personality data were inconclusive in this study, future research should not abandon attempts to isolate personal characteristics of individuals at innovative institutions. More sensitive instruments or emphasis upon other personal factors, such as values, may identify discriminating differences between members of innovative and non-innovative organizations.

4. Refinement of the techniques and instruments for assessing normative structures in various types of organizations would be helpful in future investigations. The systematic exploration of institutional norms is likely to be of increasing concern to the social scientist, and the empirical assessment of norms should produce promising results.

5. Future research could examine more analytically the interrelationships between the two dimensions--the personal and organizational--explored in this study, as well as take into account additional components which may account for an institution's receptivity to change. For example, the environmental setting of a college--urban or rural location--should have an impact on potential adoption; its proximity to other institutions, and its interinstitutional relationships may affect its willingness to consider innovations. Fi-

3

nally, further research could examine the relationship between the nature of the students, their involvement in the decision processes, and the intellectual climate, or campus climate, and the adoption of innovations.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE REGARDING CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES

Institution ______________________________

Information supplied by ______________________________
(Name)

______________________________ ______________
(Title) (Date)

I.

A. Enrollment: Please indicate the number of students enrolled at the opening of the 1963-1964 academic year.

	Full-Time Students	Part-Time Students
Undergraduate		
Graduate		

B. Faculty: How many full- and part-time faculty are employed for the current year?

Number of full-time faculty ___ Number of part-time faculty ___

C. What is the educational and general expenditure per full-time equivalent student at your institution (for the last completed fiscal year)?

$ ________

D. In what way is the academic year organized at your institution? (Check appropriate space.)

(a) semesters ___ (b) quarters ___ since 19___

(c) trimesters ___ since 19___ (d) other ______ (Please specify)

Is the institution considering changing its organization of the academic year, for example, from the semester to the quarter system?

Yes ___ No ___

If yes, what system is being considered? ________________

E. Is your college organized on a departmental or divisional basis?

Departments ____ Divisions ____ since 19___

Other __________ (please specify).

II. For each educational program or practice listed below, place a check in the appropriate column. (Definitions for each program are listed in Appendix B.) Within the parentheses please indicate the approximate date the program or practice was started at the college.

Innovative Programs or Practices	The college has such a program in every department or division	The college has such a program but not in every department or division	The college does not have such a program	If college does not have the program, is such a program being considered by a faculty committee?	
				Yes	No
1. Advanced Placement Program	( )	( )			
2. Bilingual Courses	( )	( )			
3. Closed or Open Circuit Television	( )	( )			
4. Comprehensive Examinations	( )	( )			
5. Faculty-Student Governing Committees	( )	( )			
6. Freshman Seminars	( )	( )			
7. Honors Program	( )	( )			
8. Independent Study	( )	( )			

9. Interdepartmental Studies	( )	( )			
10. Interinstitutional Cooperative Programs	( )	( )			
11. Language Laboratories	( )	( )			
12. Non-Western Studies	( )	( )			
13. Programmed Instruction	( )	( )			
14. Use of Teaching Machines	( )	( )			
15. Team Teaching	( )	( )			
16. Tutorial System	( )	( )			
17. Undergraduate Study Abroad	( )	( )			
18. Work-Study Program	( )	( )			
19. Sabbatical Leave Policy	( )	( )			

If the college offers any other new or experimental programs or practices, please list them below.

APPENDIX B

CHECKLIST OF PROGRAMS

The following list contains a number of innovative educational programs and practices introduced rather recently to higher education. Definitions for each program are on the following pages.

Please check all those that you have read about in the journals, heard about at professional meetings, or know about from other sources.

_____ Advanced Placement Program
_____ Bilingual Courses
_____ Closed or Open Circuit Television
_____ Comprehensive Examinations
_____ Divisional Organization
_____ Faculty-Student Governing Committees
_____ Freshman Seminars
_____ Honors Program
_____ Independent Study
_____ Interdepartmental Studies
_____ Interinstitutional Cooperative Programs
_____ Language Laboratories
_____ Non-Western Studies
_____ Programmed Instruction
_____ Quarter
_____ Sabbatical Leave
_____ Teaching Machines
_____ Team Teaching
_____ Trimester
_____ Tutorial System
_____ Undergraduate Study Abroad
_____ Work-Study Program

Definitions[1] of Programs and Practices

1. Advanced Placement Program.--Assigning students newly admitted from secondary schools to advanced courses for which they qualify on the basis of private study and test scores.* Also included is the participation of a college in the College Board Advanced Placement Examination program of the Educational Testing Service.

2. Bilingual Courses.--A course in a subject area which requires the use of two languages, for example, a course in Chinese History which requires the use of both the English and Chinese languages.

3. Closed or Open Circuit Television.--The use of television by a college or university to teach courses for credit.

4. Comprehensive Examinations.--Examinations designed to measure proficiency in various areas of learning rather than in a single subject.*

5. Divisional Organization.--An institution organized in larger academic units, e.g., social science, rather than departments, e.g., sociology.

6. Faculty-Student Governing Committees.--A standing committee at a college or university which includes representatives from the faculty and student body.

7. Freshman Seminars.--Small groups of freshmen are brought into seminar contact with senior faculty members.

8. Honors Program.--Concentrated study for superior students in a major field and usually includes a senior thesis or research project.*

9. Independent Study.--Organized individual study arranged for superior students in topics or problems chosen by themselves with the approval of the departments concerned and with the supervision of instructors.*

10. Interdepartmental Studies.--Two or more departments join in offering a concentrated program on a subject or area as a whole, for example, an interdepartmental approach to the study of American Civilization.

11. Interinstitutional Cooperative Programs.--Two or more colleges combine faculty, students, or facilities to offer a particular program of studies.

12. Language Laboratories.--Facilities for the study of foreign languages through the use of tapes and tape recorders.

13. Non-Western Studies.--A course or program in the study of a non-Western civilization as a whole or the study of some aspect of a non-Western culture.

---

[1] Starred definitions are taken from the Handbook of Data and Definitions in Higher Education.

14. Programmed Instruction.--A course of study designed for independent use by the student where the materials relating to the subject to be taught are organized so that the student proceeds in small steps, responds to information, and is informed immediately whether his response is correct or incorrect.

15. Quarter.--A fourth of a school year. Three quarters constitute the academic year.

16. Sabbatical Leave.--A plan for providing teachers with an opportunity for self-improvement, or for additional study towards a higher degree, with full or partial compensation following a designated number of years of consecutive service.

17. Teaching Machines.--A mechanical device which presents a computerized educational program designed to teach a student through controlled communication.

18. Team Teaching.--A course or program of study under the direction of two or more faculty members, all of whom participate directly in meeting the class sessions.

19. Trimester.--A term used to designate one of three terms of equal length in the school year, September to September.

20. Tutorial System.--A plan for carrying out specific individual guidance through assignment of students to individual instructors for the integration of their studies with their whole lives.*

21. Undergraduate Study Abroad.--A period of study, usually for credit, in a foreign country and often under the supervision of a resident director.

22. Work-Study Program.--A plan for the integration of classroom work and practical experience through alternative attendance at class and employment in business, industry, or government.

APPENDIX C

ORGANIZATIONAL PROFILE

The Organizational Profile is designed to assess the way in which the members of a college judge some of the overall dimensions of a college as an institution. Each item has the same possible responses:

(a) The activity is required at the college.

(b) The activity is recommended or encouraged, but not required at the college.

(c) The activity is permitted, but not recommended at the college.

(d) The activity is prohibited at the college.

(e) The activity is in some other category. In these cases, please specify.

Please answer each item, by circling the most appropriate response, as you see the situation. Where the activity is not an actual practice, answer in terms of what you think might apply.

All respondents and the name of the college will be kept confidential. The data will be used only by the investigator in his study and will be reported only in summary form.

Thanks very much for your help.

Please complete the following:

Name ____________________

Position and/or faculty rank ____________________

Age __________ Number of years at the college __________

1. Faculty participation in determining the use of research funds is (or probably would be)

   (a) required
   (b) recommended or encouraged
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

2. In the search for a new President and before one would be officially appointed by the Board of Trustees, faculty participation would probably be

   (a) required
   (b) recommended
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

3. In determining salary increases for college personnel, faculty participation is

   (a) required
   (b) recommended
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

4. With regard to selecting faculty for replacements or additions, faculty participation is

   (a) required
   (b) recommended
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

5. Faculty review of the college's annual budget is

   (a) required
   (b) recommended
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

6. Maintaining official direct and effective communication between trustees and faculty at the college is

   (a) required
   (b) recommended
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

7. With regard to establishing regulations concerning student conduct, faculty participation is

   (a) required
   (b) recommended
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

8. If the college were considering adding a new degree level, for example, a Master of Arts program in teacher education, faculty participation in this decision would probably be

   (a) required
   (b) recommended
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

9. Faculty determination of the content and scope of examinations used at the college is

   (a) required
   (b) recommended
   (c) permitted
   (d) prohibited
   (e) other (specify)

10. Holding small classes during the evening at faculty members' homes at the college is

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

11. Faculty review of the design and content of the college curriculum is

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

12. With respect to the notion that a faculty member must be engaged in publishing articles in scholarly journals in order to be a good teacher and receive promotion, this activity at the college is

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

13. With respect to determining teaching loads and assigning specific courses to faculty members, faculty participation is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

14. Ensuring departmental autonomy, for example, on matters of offering additional courses, is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

15. Making exceptions more often than not to common policies or practices affecting the faculty at the college is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

16. Permitting student organizations to select their own faculty advisors is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

17. Exploring new possibilities for interdepartmental programs of study at the college is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

18. Faculty members' criticisms of administrative policies of the college are

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

19. **Elaborate and close control over decisions of the student court regarding disciplinary matters is**

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

20. **Faculty observation of instruction by other faculty members is**

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

21. **Faculty advisement of students on personal as well as academic matters is**

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

22. **Allowing faculty members to place emphasis on the commitment to their discipline above the interests of the college is**

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

23. **In establishing policies regarding the awarding of scholarships and other financial aids, faculty participation is**

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

24. **Faculty participation in determining student entrance requirements is**

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

25. If the college were thinking about expanding by adding a new department, faculty participation would probably be

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

26. With regard to establishing general policies on promotion and tenure, faculty participation is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

27. On general questions of academic standards at the college, faculty participation is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

28. Preparing course syllabi by faculty members for each course taught at the college is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

29. Discussion of controversial issues in the classroom is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

30. Faculty participation in determining eligibility requirements for student participation in extra-curricular activities is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

31. Allowing administrators, e.g., the Dean, to continue to teach at least one class in their fields is

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

32. Flexible interpretations of student regulations and lenient treatment of violators are

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

33. "Senatorial courtesy" of faculty, i.e., deference to the older, tenured staff members, in determining who teaches which courses, is

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

34. Allowing students to regulate the funds for various student clubs and other activities is

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

35. Faculty participation in decisions affecting academic freedom is

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

36. On questions of faculty promotions, faculty participation is

    (a) required
    (b) recommended
    (c) permitted
    (d) prohibited
    (e) other (specify)

37. In determining how the financial resources of the college are to be utilized, faculty participation is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

38. Allowing options or substitutions to the college's general education requirements is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

39. On questions regarding the number, scope, and requirements for degrees granted by the college, faculty participation is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

40. Close personal contact between students and faculty at the college is

(a) required
(b) recommended
(c) permitted
(d) prohibited
(e) other (specify)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Asch, S. E. "Effects of Group Pressure upon the Modification and Distortion of Judgments," Readings in Social Psychology. Edited by Guy E. Swanson, Theodore M. Newcomb, and Eugene L. Hartley. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952.

Bartlett, F. C. Psychology and Primitive Culture. London: Cambridge University Press, 1923.

Blau, Peter M. "A Theory of Social Integration," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. LXV (May, 1960).

Blau, Peter M., and Scott, W. Richard. Formal Organization: A Comparative Approach. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962.

Brickell, Henry. "The Dynamics of Educational Change," Theory Into Practice, Vol. I, No. 2 (April, 1962).

________. Organizing New York State for Educational Change. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1961.

________. "State Organization for Educational Change: A Case Study and a Proposal," Innovation in Education. Edited by Matthew B. Miles. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

Cartwright, Dorwin. "Achieving Change in People," The Planning of Change: Readings in the Applied Behavioral Sciences. Edited by Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961.

Cattell, Raymond B., and Eber, Herbert W. Handbook for the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire. Champaign, Ill.: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1957.

Clark, Burton R. "Faculty Culture," The Study of Campus Cultures. Edited by Terry F. Lunsford. Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1963.

Cocking, Walter. The Regional Introduction of Educational Practices. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.

Coleman, James S. Community Conflict. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957.

Coleman, James S., Katz, Elihu, and Menzel, Herbert. "The Diffusion of an Innovation among Physicians," Sociometry, Vol. XX (December, 1957).

Cooley, William W., and Lohnes, Paul R. Multivariate Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1962.

Corson, John J. Governance of Colleges and Universities. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960.

Coser, Lewis A. The Functions of Social Conflict. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956.

DeVane, William C. "A Time and a Place for Liberal Education," Liberal Education, Vol. L (May, 1964).

Eichholz, Gerhard, and Rogers, Everett M. "Resistance to the Adoption of Audio-Visual Aids by Elementary School Teachers: Contrasts and Similarities to Agriculture Innovation," Innovation in Education. Edited by Matthew B. Miles. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

Getzels, Jacob W. "Administration as a Social Process," Administrative Theory in Education. Edited by Andrew W. Halpin. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958.

Getzels, Jacob W., and Guba, Egon G. "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, Vol. LXV (1957).

Gouldner, Alvin W. "Organizational Analysis," Sociology Today: Problems and Prospects. Edited by Robert K. Merton, Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., and Leonard Broom. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959.

Handbook of Data and Definitions in Higher Education. n.p.: American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, 1962.

Jones, Howard Mumford, Riesman, David, and Ulich, Robert. The University and the New World. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1962.

Katz, Elihu. "Communication Research and the Image of Society: Convergence of Two Traditions," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. LXV (March, 1960).

________. "Notes on the Unit of Adoption in Diffusion Research," Sociological Inquiry, Vol. XXXII (Winter, 1962).

________. "The Social Itinerary of Technical Change: Two Studies on the Diffusion of Innovation," Human Organization, Vol. XX, No. 2 (Spring, 1961).

________. "The Two-Step Flow of Communication: An Up-To-Date Report on an Hypothesis," Public Opinion Quarterly, Vol. XXI (Spring, 1957).

Katz, Elihu, and Lazarsfeld, Paul. Personal Influence: The Part Played by People in the Flow of Mass Communication. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1955.

Lazarsfeld, Paul F. "The Social Sciences and the Study of Administration: A Rationale," The Social Sciences and Educational Administration. Edited by Lawrence W. Downey and Frederick Enns. Edmonton, Canada: University of Alberta, 1963.

Linton, Ralph. The Study of Man. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936.

Lionberger, Herbert F. Adoption of New Ideas and Practices. Ames: Iowa State University Press, 1960.

Mandelbaum, David (ed.). Selected Writings of Edward Sapir in Language, Culture, and Personality. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1949.

March, James G., and Simon, Herbert A. Organizations. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958.

Mason, Robert. "An Ordinal Scale for Measuring the Adoption Process," Studies of Innovation and of Communication to the Public. Stanford: Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University, 1962.

Menzel, Herbert. "Innovation, Integration, and Marginality, A Survey of Physicians," American Sociological Review, Vol. XXV (1960).

Merton, Robert K. Social Theory and Social Structure. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957.

Miles, Matthew B. "Innovation in Education: Some Generalizations," Innovation in Education. Edited by Matthew B. Miles. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

Mort, Paul R. "Studies in Educational Innovation from the Institute of Administrative Research: An Overview," Innovation in Education. Edited by Matthew B. Miles. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

Mort, Paul R., and Cornell, Francis G. American Schools in Transition. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.

Newcomb, Theodore M. Personality and Social Change. New York: Dryden Press, 1943.

Parsons, Talcott. Essays in Sociological Theory: Pure and Applied. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1949.

Riesman, David. Constraint and Variety in American Education. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1958.

Rogers, Everett M. "Characteristics of Agricultural Innovators and Other Adopter Categories," Studies of Innovation and of Communication to the Public. Stanford: Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University, 1962.

Rogers, Everett M., and Beal, George M. "The Importance of Personal Influence in the Adoption of Technological Changes," Social Forces, Vol. XXXVI (1958).

Ross, D. H. Administration for Adaptability. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.

Sherif, Muzafer. "Group Influences on the Formation of Norms and Attitudes," Readings in Social Psychology. Edited by Guy E. Swanson, Theodore M. Newcomb, and Eugene L. Hartley. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952.

Shils, Edward. "The Need for Disciplined Enquiry," Universities Quarterly, Vol. XVI, No. 1 (December, 1961).

Sorokin, Pitirim A. Society, Culture and Personality: Their Structure and Dynamics. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947.

Wilkening, Eugene A. "The Communication of Ideas on Innovation in Agriculture," Studies of Innovation and of Communication to the Public. Stanford: Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University, 1962.

________. "Roles of Communicating Agents in Technological Change in Agriculture," Social Forces, Vol. XXXIV (March, 1956).